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PUBLIC OPINION (New York) combined with THE LITERARY DIGEST

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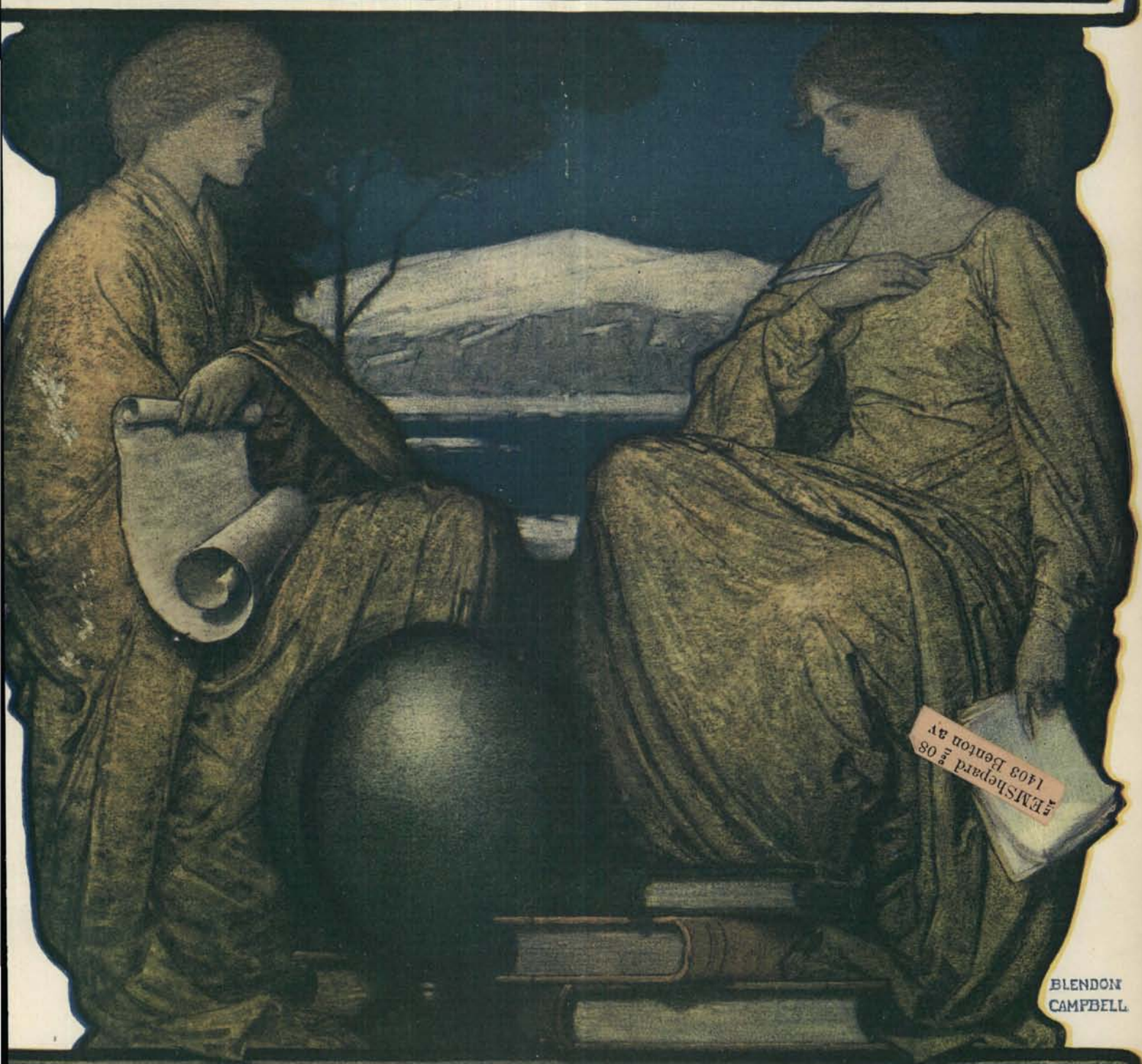

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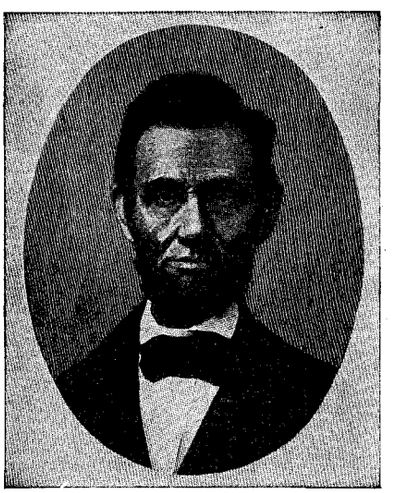

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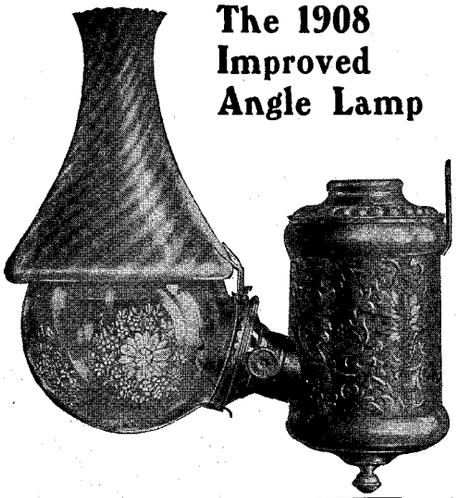

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VOL. XXXVI., NO. 4 NEW YORK, JANUARY 25, 1908 WHOLE NUMBER, 927

TOPICS OF THE DAY

CALIFORNIA PRESS ON THE SCHMITZ FIASCO

"THE great charter for blackmailers promulgated by the Court of Appeals is a most disastrous document for California," exclaims the San Francisco *Call*, in the course of its comment on the Appellate Court's startling decision in the case of ex-Mayor Schmitz. This decision quashes the indictment on which Schmitz was convicted by a lower court of extortion in the "French-restaurant" cases, and sentenced by Judge Dunne to five years in St. Quentin; at the same time, of course, it sets aside the conviction and nullifies the earlier trial. In the decision of the Court of Appeals, as handed down by Justice J. A. Cooper and concurred in by his associates, Justices Samuel P. Hall and Frank H. Kerrigan, the indictment is declared invalid for two reasons: "First, that it does not allege any threat to injure property, and, second, that it does not allege a threat to do an illegal injury." It will be remembered that the finding of the lower court and the confession of "Boss" Ruef showed that Schmitz and Ruef had extorted money from the proprietors of San Francisco's "French restaurants" by threats to withhold their licenses to sell liquor if the bribes demanded were not paid. But by the higher court's decision the verdict is annulled and the case dismissed because the Mayor had a legal right to withhold the licenses, and therefore the specific injury threatened was not an unlawful injury.

This decision comes as "a shock and a surprize to the law-respecting people of California and of the entire country," says the Oakland (Cal.) *Enquirer;* and the San Francisco *Call* (Mr. Spreckels's paper) characterizes it as "bad law, bad logic, and bad morals." It means, says the latter paper, that "official blackmail is held to be no longer a crime in California." To quote further:

"The Court of Appeal puts the citizen up against this dilemma. If an official is vested by law with power to injure a given business he may use that power to extort money by threats, and this is no offense. If, on the other hand, he has no lawful power to carry out his threats, neither can he extort money, because the threatened person would pay no attention to him. In effect, the Court of Appeal declares that the only effective form of official blackmail can not be punished as extortion. The decision is at the same time ridiculous, immoral, and injurious to the standing of the commonwealth."

This latest decision in the Schmitz case, remarks *The Bulletin*, of the same city, is "a costly defeat for the people," but "if it serves to alarm them it will not be without its compensations." Justices Cooper, Kerrigan, and Hall have gone "much further than the common sense of the public will follow them," thinks *The Bulletin*, which goes on to pillory their action in the following words:

"Graft has been legitimated by a solemn decision of the Court of Appeals. The rake-off has been sanctified by the holy word of three judges. Mighty King Quibble has issued his fiat, and what was deemed wrong is declared right, what was denounced as oppressive and dishonest is found by infallible authority, voicing itself, in some thousands of words of legal hocus-pocus, to be as lawful as going to church."

That decision, bitterly exclaims the Sacramento *Union*, "has outlawed a once honorable profession," by legalizing graft and making it "a recognized department of the practise of the law in this State." To quote further:

"Not since the Savior of men anathematized the legal profession has such a damnatory utterance concerning the profession of the law fallen from human lips as the decision of that court in the Schmitz case. It probably is the law, but it is none the less monstrous for that. It ill-befits a commonwealth that claims to be civilized. Whenever an attorney fee covers anything other than purely legal services it ceases, in honor and sound policy, to be an attorney fee, and becomes the price of dishonor, degradation, and graft. The way has been opened for making the temple of justice a den of extortioners."

More despondently pessimistic is the comment of the Riverside (Cal.) *Enterprise*, which considers it "scarcely worth while to discuss in detail the findings of the court, for if Schmitz had not been set at liberty upon these grounds, some other excuse would have been found for nullifying the force of the law." People have come to expect little else, it laments, than that, where a criminal of wealth and political influence is concerned, "some technicality or some fool judge will be found to set aside the findings of an honest jury."

In addition to quashing the indictment upon which the whole case rests, the Court of Appeals calls attention to certain alleged technical irregularities in the procedure of the lower court which convicted Mr. Schmitz. It seems to be generally admitted by the press that there were some irregularities in the trial, but it is asserted that these did not have the effect of obscuring the facts or of otherwise obstructing the course of justice. Says the Sacramento *Union* on this point:

"It is open and notorious that when Eugene Schmitz was brought to trial he was surrounded by an officialdom that he had created, and that was as unmitigatedly rascally as he was himself; that if they were suffered to serve him unhindered they would make a farce of legal procedure and a nullity of the law; that when the cases came to trial the judge on the bench was baited by attorneys like a bear in a cage, with the too evident purpose of provoking the court into error, that the court had had to take the summoning

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of a jury and the care of the prisoners out of the hands of the regularly constituted authorities in order to preserve any semblance of justice to the people of California. This statement of the condition of affairs in San Francisco is too open and notorious to admit of patient discussion. It is small wonder if, under such circumstances, the rules of the game of justice were not always adhered to."

The Chronicle, of the same city, however, is apparently in sympathy with Judge Cooper's decision, which it thinks "ought to teach the people that convictions obtained under the conditions of the Schmitz trial are not worth the paper on which the verdict was written, and ought not to be." But the Oakland *Tribune* comes even more unreservedly to the defense of the Appellate Court, which, it maintains, "has preferred to be right, rather than popular." It has not "stretched out its arm," as many allege, "to rescue Ruef and Schmitz from prison," but has merely "exerted its august influence to rescue the law from the hands of conspirators and the administration of justice from prostitution to base ends." To quote further from this double-leaded defense:

"Broadly stated, the court has declared that criminal trials shall be fair and impartial and in accordance with the established modes of judicial procedure; that the rules of evidence shall be adhered to; jurors fairly chosen, and that testimony for and against a defendant shall be fairly and honestly sifted as the law directs and in accordance with time-honored practise. In doing so, the court has set the seal of condemnation in grand juries and judges programing with private prosecutions to accomplish ends by irregular process and methods obnoxious to decency, fair play, and the principles of justice. Incidentally, it has given a wholesome rebuke to government by indictment and the prostitution of the legal machinery to serve personal and political designs.

"The question before the Appellate Court was not the innocence or guilt of Schmitz nor the character of the government of which he was the head, but whether he was tried fairly by an impartial jury properly chosen, in accordance with the laws of the land and the established usage in criminal procedure."

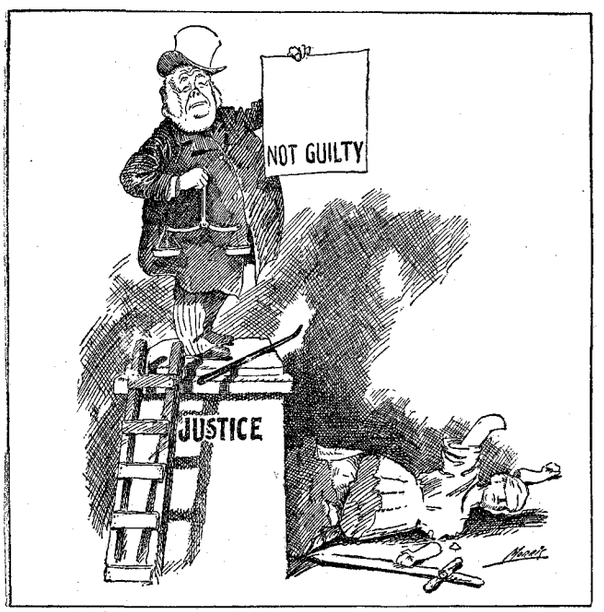
The Tribune, from which the above quotation is made, has for some time been fighting a libel suit brought against it by Rudolph Spreckels, one of the leading powers behind the prosecution of Ruef and Schmitz.

One unfortunate feature of the case, says a San Francisco dispatch to the New York *Sun*, is that the judges of the Appellate Court are closely connected by marriage with people who have been indicted or who have vigorously opposed the graft prosecutions. Thus we read: "Judge Cooper, who wrote the decision, is a brother-in-law of W. I. Brobeck, who was indicted for complicity in the alleged Parkside-Railroad franchise graft. Judge Kerrigan's wife is a daughter of James McNab, head of the big draying concern that received many favors from Schmitz. Judge Hall is a brother-in-law of State Attorney Moore, senior counsel for Patrick Calhoun."

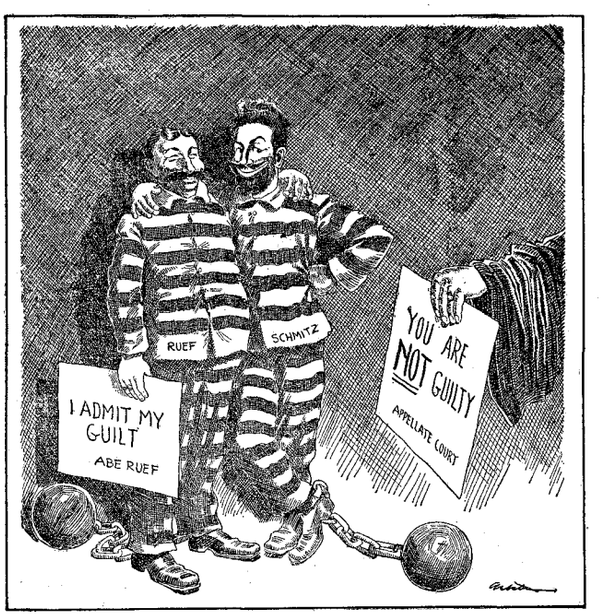
Judge Dunne, in an interview, himself calls attention to these facts, in view of which, he says, "I do not believe the court was in a proper frame of mind to give the matter impartial consideration and decide it strictly upon its merits." We are reminded, however, that a large number of other indictments stand against both Schmitz and Ruef, and that for them personally the situation will probably not be greatly changed by the finding of the Appellate Court. It is supposed, moreover, that the case will be carried before still higher tribunals. In the mean time, the East is scarcely less shocked than the West. "No wonder San Francisco is staggered," exclaims the New York *World;* and the Chicago *News* remarks that in San Francisco official blackmail "seems to be a sort of amiable eccentricity in the eyes of the high court of justice."

MISTAKES ABOUT SOUTH AMERICA

A COUNTRY of swashbuckler nations, a land of intrigues and revolutions, rich in material for the romantic novel and the comic opera—this, until recently, was the impression of South America which prevailed among a large part of the reading public of the United States. But now, affirms Dr. L. S. Rowe—who has just returned from a tour of the South-American states—we are demanding to know the truth about the nations to the south of us, realizing that "the time is rapidly approaching when the people of the United States must be prepared to express themselves clearly and unequivocally on certain fundamental questions affecting their relations with the peoples of Latin America." Dr. Rowe therefore proceeds to disabuse our minds of certain "fundamental misconceptions" of that continent. Writing in the January *North American Review*, he tells us, first of all, that we must abandon all hope of studying the country as a whole. For in spite of certain common traits due to community of racial origin and social and politic tradition, the various countries, when compared with one another,



"JUSTICE" IN SAN FRANCISCO!
—Morris in the Spokane *Spokesman Review*.



"OH, VERY WELL, HAVE IT YOUR OWN WAY."
—Webster in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*.

ECCENTRICITIES OF THE LAW.

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"present differences quite as marked as those which distinguish the countries of Europe." Thus, for instance, Brazil is "a federal republic, loosely knit together, but with an administrative organization sufficiently developed to assure stability and security of person and property"; the Argentine "offers the spectacle of an organized democracy, which has passed through a peaceable social revolution, and in which the political system is gradually adapting itself to the new social conditions"; while Chile "is still, in many respects, a political aristocracy, which is entering upon the first stages of social revolution through the gradual awakening of the laboring classes to consciousness of power." Dr. Rowe ventures to generalize, however, to the extent of saying that "in all the countries of South America there exists a wide gap between the political life of the nation on the one hand, and its economic, industrial, and social activities on the other." Our most serious mistake, he says, has been "in judging the life of these nations by the play of their party politics." This course has given us "an impression of instability which a more careful analysis fails to justify." Thus:

"In Chile, for instance, it would be difficult to imagine a more rapid shifting of governmental policy. Under the parliamentary system, for the maintenance of which the revolution of 1891 was fought, the ministries succeed one another with almost bewildering rapidity. . . . And yet this instability of political life affects the life of the nation to a very limited degree. The great mass of the business community look upon politics as the game of a small group of professionals, a necessary evil, tolerable so long as it does not become too serious an obstacle to progress. . . . A small group of young men, however, are beginning to sound a new note, that of the civic obligation of every citizen—an idea new to the political life of South America."

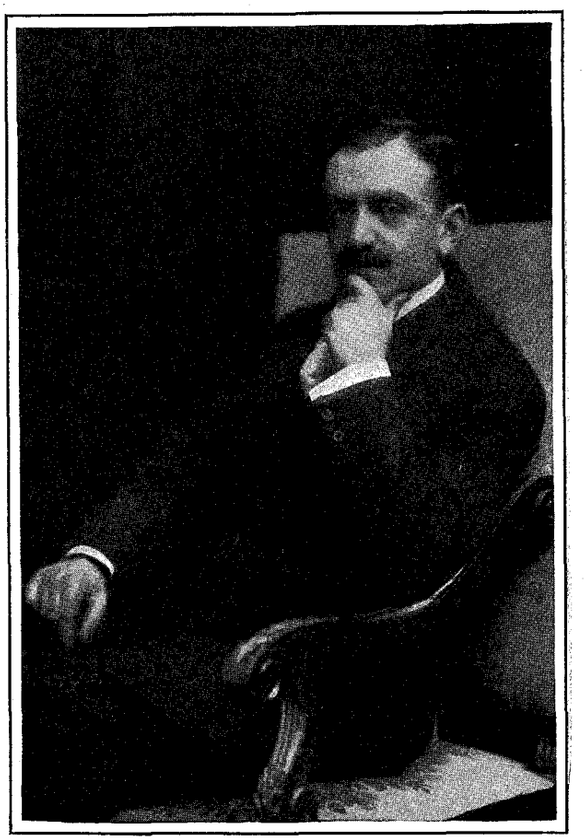
But Dr. Rowe admits that there are two forms of political instability to be reckoned with in South America. In addition to the form just described, which does not affect the fundamental bases of social order, there is "the type which finds expression in perpetual revolutions, constituting a constant menace to life and property and an insuperable obstacle to industrial progress." He asserts, nevertheless, that in the continent as a whole the elements of stability far outweigh those of instability. In support of this contention he turns to a consideration of the family. To quote:

"There is probably no other section of the world in which the family organization rests on so solid a basis. It is true that the unmarried woman enjoys relatively little freedom in these countries, and it is equally true that the legal rights of the married women are far more restricted than in the United States. The social status of the unmarried and the limited legal rights of the married woman are apt to mislead the foreigner, unless he undertakes a careful study of the family itself. He will find there a strength of organization and a solidity of structure which can not be found either in the United States or in any European country. The unity of family feeling extends not only through the direct line of descent, but to all the collateral branches. It is within this large family group that the spirit of cooperation finds its most distinct expression; and it is this spirit of mutual helpfulness within the family group which lends stability to the social organization of the South-American countries.

"Divorce is unknown in the South-American codes; but, even were it recognized, it would be most sparingly used. The public opinion of these countries is so unalterably opposed to the dissolution of the marriage tie that social ostracism would confront those who attempted to avail themselves of this remedy.

"It must not be supposed, furthermore, that the legal subordination of the wife means either the elimination or diminution of her influence. Throughout South America the rearing and education of the children are left to the mother to a far greater extent than in Europe or in the United States. In marked contrast with conditions in the United States, there is a lack of companionship between father and children. This gives to the mother a predominant influence in the internal affairs of the family. In fact, on her judgment depend the education of the children and, to a very large degree, the callings which they are to follow."

Another error, says Dr. Rowe, is to credit South-Americans with a lack of real patriotism. The selfish spirit which animates a small group of politicians is not shared by the mass of the people, who "are conscious of the sacrifices that have been made to secure their present position of independence, and are determined to allow no outside interference with the normal development of their native land."



DR. L. S. ROWE.

Our most serious mistake in regard to the South-American nations, he says, has been in judging them by the play of their party politics.

CURING CRIMINALS BY KINDNESS

WE have not yet read of a case where the humane treatment of prisoners has gone so far that outsiders peer enviously through the prison-gates and long to be criminals, but it appears that in Cleveland the workhouse prisoners are used so well that no guards are needed to keep them from running away. For seven years the prisoners have been treated in this kindly manner, and "only a handful have ever taken advantage of their liberty." These escapes, instead of inspiring the other inmates to cut and run, made them "unhappy because some of their associates had broken their word." The evening schools at the workhouse, too, are so invitingly conducted that discharged prisoners often come back to spend their evenings there instead of in the saloons.

This utopian workhouse is described in *The Outlook* for January 18 by Frederic C. Howe, and the motive animating the management is exprest in these words: "We are not trying to make money out of prisoners; we are trying to make men." Mr. Howe recently visited this remarkable institution with Dr. Harris R. Cooley, a former clergyman who has charge of it under the administration of Mayor Tom L. Johnson. Says Mr. Howe:

"The laboratory where this experiment is being tried out is known as the Cleveland Farm Colony. It is a nineteen-hundred-acre farm, which lies back ten miles from the lake, high above the surrounding country, with an inspiring outlook which covers the city below and Lake Erie in the distance. Here is a beautiful city

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cemetery. Elsewhere is a municipal tuberculosis hospital. On the highest point of land is the infirmary group of buildings. In still another section is the workhouse.

"I recently visited this colony with Mr. Cooley. We came upon a large gang of men engaged in grading the land and in constructing roads and sewers. It was a little startling to be told that they were workhouse prisoners. They looked like other men, it was true, for they wore no prison garb. They were not locked together by a ball and chain. They moved about as freely as any other men might move at that sort of work. I looked for a guard with rifle across his knees to prevent some sudden uprising or an attempted break for liberty. There was no such person in sight. Nor was there any stockade or other enclosure to prevent the escape of the men.

DR. HARRIS R. COOLEY.

By his work among the minor criminals of Cleveland, O., he has so revolutionized the city's attitude toward its dependent classes that it has become "much such a laboratory to those interested in this work as the city of Glasgow is to those who want to study municipal ownership."

"Later we came upon a body of men at work in a stone-quarry. They were gathering stone for the roads or for the foundations of the buildings, or for sale to contractors. They, too, were just like other men. And there were no guards here. Wherever we went upon this great plantation of nineteen hundred acres we came upon men, singly or in groups, gathering potatoes, corn, fruit, hay, or grain, and doing other farm work. They were all workhouse prisoners."

"How do you manage it?" asked Mr. Howe; "how do you keep them from organizing, from assaulting some one and escaping in a body?" Dr. Cooley replied:

"Oh, we have no trouble about that. We have no guards; we have no stockade; there is no one about the place, so far as I know, who carries so much as a stick or a revolver. We trust these men, and because we trust them they respect the trust. They are committed for vagrancy, for drunkenness, for assault, for the many misdemeanors and petty offenses that occur in a large city. We used to lock these men up in the workhouse in the city. We put them at pulling brushes, a laborious and confining work. The men were weak enough when they came to us. They were dissipated, unstrung, and for various reasons unable to resist temptation. We kept them in the workhouse until they had worked out their sentence, and then turned them out in the street again. Of course they drifted into the nearest saloon. Where else could they go? Confinement had weakened their will power and destroyed their physical health, so that their whole nature craved a stimulant. Often they were back to us within twenty-four hours. That was inevitable. They were less fit for work than when they came to us, and they were hardened by the treatment which the city had meted out to them.

"Instead of punishing these men by exacting tasks for which they are unsuited, we now put them on this beautiful farm. They live out of doors. They are working at something for which they are fitted. For most of them come from some coarse work or other. We have work here for a generation to come. We have a splendid quarry from which we can build miles of roads, and lay the foundations of our buildings. Then, too, we have this great estate to farm. We will supply the city hospitals, infirmary, and other institutions with good milk, with fresh vegetables. We can also supply the police and fire departments with hay and grain. Even from a financial point of view this experiment justifies itself. But that is the least important consideration. The principal thing is that we restore the prisoner's self-respect. He grows strong by outdoor work. He goes back to life again able to meet the temptations which the city offers. And a very large percentage of these men never come back. But better even than that, we restore their respect and confidence in themselves. For we treat them like men, and they respond to it."

Not the least interesting outgrowth of this experiment is the "Brotherhood," which Mr. Howe describes as follows:

"The generosity of the city has awakened a gratitude on the part of those who have been helped by it. That love begets love, just as hate begets hate, has been determined by the change in the temper of the prisoners themselves. About two years ago one of the men who had been released saved up ten dollars from his wages and returned to the workhouse to grub-stake a friend. They took rooms together. Then they obtained the release of a third. Out

"LOOK OUT, MISTER; SOMEBODY PUSHED ME."
—Carter in the Minneapolis *Evening Tribune*.

"WHIP BEHIND, MISTER."
—Ding in the Des Moines *Register and Leader*.

REPUBLICAN RAPS AT BRYAN.

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of this grew the Brotherhood. The Brotherhood rented a house upon which they have expended a total of $2,200 in furnishings. This has all been paid off by the men themselves. They go to the workhouse and take the discharged prisoners on the expiration of their terms, and protect them until they secure a position. They give them food and lodging. In two years' time four hundred and twenty-seven men have passed through the Brotherhood association, which is in no way connected with the city, but is maintained by the discharged prisoners themselves. They bring their wages to the parole officer to be kept by him for them, or paid out to their wives and children. Over $12,000 has passed through the department's hands in this way. This, too, is an evidence of the reflex action of kindness. Men who previously left the workhouse with hatred in their hearts for society, now have gratitude for the city because it has helped them to escape from drunkenness, vagrancy, and destitution. It has reestablished their self-respect and enabled them to begin life anew. They have been able to do this, too, without the brand of crime upon them."

The city also has a juvenile court and a farm of 285 acres for boys, known as "Boyville," where youthful delinquents are reclaimed. Instead of being herded with hardened criminals in prisons that become schools of crime—

"Now these boys are taken to Boyville for the less serious offenses. Here they are assigned to cottages which bear the name of Washington, of Jefferson, of Lincoln, of Jackson. Each cottage is a home, presided over by a motherly matron. The main administration building is a school where the boys are taught the same subjects as in the public school. They are kept here until released by the city. The whole atmosphere of Boyville is that of a home, not a prison. There are no bars, no places of confinement. The boys are largely on their honor, subject, however, to the fear of restraint. Boyville, too, is something more than a school. It is a great playground. The boys have a fire department, and are drilled in the protection of the property of the colony. They have an ice-pond upon which they skate and from which they gather ice in the winter. Here they fish and swim in the summer months. The boys also have all sorts of pets—dogs, calves, and goats. There is a herd of cattle. There are also horses and ponies. The boys have organized a baseball nine, and play matches during the season with boys of their age in the surrounding towns. They have athletic contests among themselves, and live a life of competitive emulation in those things that were unknown to them upon the streets. It is no disgrace to have been at Boyville. It is an alma mater which leaves no stain of criminal confinement. Often the boys go back to their parents with regret. Their stay at Boyville has been a long, happy vacation. It is the only real home that they have ever known."

GOVERNMENT INSURANCE OF BANK DEPOSITS

IT can not have escaped the attention of bankers, thinks the Chicago *News*, that the growth of the demand for government insurance of bank depositors against loss is rapid and wide-spread. When Mr. Bryan, not many weeks ago, began his campaign for a government guaranty of National-bank deposits through a fund contributed by the banks, there were plenty of critics, even in his own party, who derided the idea as populistic. Yet so far there has been very little hostile comment leveled against the same suggestion as it is embodied in the comprehensive currency bill drafted by Representative Charles N. Fowler, chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency; and this bill, asserts the Springfield *Republican*, has many supporters among conservative financial authorities. But while, as a Federal measure, the idea remains in the theoretical stage, Oklahoma, the youngest of the States, has already incorporated it in its banking legislation, the new law to go into effect about the middle of February. As a result, financial institutions along the Oklahoma border demand similar laws to put them on an even footing with their Oklahoma competitors, and already the Governors of Texas and Kansas have been petitioned to call extra legislative sessions to adopt the Oklahoma plan. The Illinois legislature also has the matter under discussion, and Mr. Bryan states that Ohio, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Louisiana are to give serious consideration to the question in the immediate future. "It does not require any particular skill in divination," remarks the Chicago *News*, "to foretell that if the plan is good in practise it will win its way very widely now that it has come into use in one of the forty-six commonwealths and is under close scrutiny in others." Special interest therefore attaches to the Oklahoma law, which is thus outlined in the New York *Financier*:

CHAIRMAN CHARLES N. FOWLER,

Of the House Committee on Banking and Currency. His Currency-reform Bill, now before Congress, in addition to providing for an elastic asset currency, would, he claims, give "equal and absolute protection to all depositors in national banks by placing in the United States Treasury a guaranty-fund which by January, 1909, ought to approximate $500,000,000."

"Its main provisions are that a State banking board, created for the purpose, shall have authority to levy on the capital stock of banks an assessment of 1 per cent. of the daily average deposits of each bank. The deposits of State funds in banks are exempt from levy. Should the guaranty fund thus provided become impaired through extraordinary drains, the board is empowered to levy special assessments in an amount sufficient to restore the fund to its minimum of 1 per cent. Banks organized in the future are to pay 3 per cent. of their capital to the fund when they begin business, and this assessment constitutes a credit subject to adjustment at the end of the year on the total of their deposits. In order that there may be no preference shown, National banks in the State may take advantage of the system on the same terms, but if, in the future, the Federal Government shall establish a guaranty fund for National banks, then 90 per cent. of the total of the assessment funds paid by such banks to the State shall be retained by them. . . . . .

"One of the objections offered against the establishment of the guaranty-safety-fund principle in general has been that the removal of responsibility to depositors would tend to make bank officers careless, and it is a fact that with the loose laws which are in force in many States this objection would hold good. The Oklahoma law, however, provides for at least two examinations a year into every bank, and violation of the law sections is punishable by imprisonment. It is to be anticipated, therefore, that officers of banks operating under this law will be foolish indeed to violate its provisions, and that Oklahoma banks will be carefully and conservatively managed."

If a similar system is adopted by the nation, says Mr. Bryan, the State banks should be allowed to avail themselves of it "by putting themselves upon an equality in the matter of inspection, security, and regulation." "In short," says the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, "one of the best reasons for perfecting the National banking system is that it forces the States to strengthen their banking laws so that State banks can compete with National banks."

Mr. Fowler's currency bill, now under consideration in the House, provides for the guaranty of deposits as well as circulation, the fund for that purpose and for administrative expenses to be derived from a direct five-per-cent. deposit by the banks. This guaranty fund, says Mr. Fowler, "may be regarded as part of the required reserves, and, therefore, there is no additional burden thrown upon the banks."

The New York *Tribune*, which looks upon all these schemes to guarantee deposits as merely "after-panic suggestions," has this to say in criticism of the whole idea:

"It is always assumed, and with justice, too, that where there is

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a real demand private enterprise is ready to satisfy it. Why has no insurance company entered into the field of guaranteeing bank deposits? On practically everything in which the risk is sufficiently large for the public to desire insurance against it a policy may be obtained. The fact is that the chance of ultimate loss through bank failure is negligible, and depositors realize that it is. If a company should enter the field, offering to write policies on bank deposits, it could not hope to obtain any patronage, even tho it could do a profitable business at a tenth of one per cent. If such private insurance is impracticable, why, supposing there is a public demand for insurance of deposits, have not banks themselves recognized it and accordingly formed associations for the mutual insurance of one another's deposits? If there were any desire for such a guaranty the members of such mutual associations might have easily outdistanced their uninsured competitors in obtaining business.

"The demand for a guarantee of deposits, then, is not sufficiently strong to invite a private company into that field of insurance, nor to commend itself to the consideration of banks in the intense competition for deposits, nor even to keep alive the practise when once established."

MR. TAFT'S ATTITUDE TOWARD LABOR

INJUNCTIONS issued years ago by Secretary Taft when he was a judge in Ohio found so much disfavor in labor-union circles at that time that many observers have since taken for granted that the votes of organized labor will be arrayed against his Presidential candidacy. Hence his recent speech in New York on the labor question, and his published answer to questions addrest to him by Llewellyn Lewis, secretary of the Ohio Federation of Labor, are scrutinized closely by the press with a view to their political bearings. His communication to Mr. Lewis about the use and abuse of injunctions in labor disputes may be regarded, thinks the Philadelphia *Record* (Ind. Dem.), "as a plank in his personal platform"; and according to the Kansas City *Star* (Ind.) his Cooper-Union speech "not only explains and justifies his course on the bench, but it shows that his personal views then were as sound and as fair as they are now." Moreover, as the New York *Globe* (Rep.) points out, Judge Taft, in making his rulings, "was acting as neither the special friend of labor nor of property, but was merely interpreting and applying the law as he found it." After a careful perusal of Secretary Taft's recent utterances the Spokane *Spokesman Review* (Ind. Rep.) finds that "he takes no new ground," but it thinks that his words will probably do away with certain popular misconceptions of his attitude toward labor; and the Providence *Journal* (Ind.) is confident that the hostility hitherto felt toward him in labor circles will now diminish, since it has been made clear that he "believes in the rights of both labor and capital."

In his letter to the Ohio labor leader (published in the daily papers of January 9) Secretary Taft states that he favors a return to the old rule in regard to temporary injunctions, that they should not be issued without a preliminary notice and hearing. In cases of contempt, growing out of disobedience to restraining orders, where objection is made to a trial of the offender by the judge issuing the restraining order, Mr. Taft says it would be well for the senior circuit judge of the district to name another judge to preside, altho he does not think that cases would often arise requiring this procedure. "It is difficult to see wherein either of these suggestions would interfere with the course of justice or with the maintenance of respect for law," comments the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* (Rep.). The Springfield *Republican* (Ind.), however, thinks that the Secretary's utterances on the labor question "are, perhaps, open to the criticism of being a piece of coquetry"; and the Kansas City *Journal* (Rep.) puts the matter less delicately when it describes him as making "a palpable appeal to the labor vote." He made his position clear enough, admits the Savannah *News* (Dem.); but it adds that "he may not have succeeded in gaining the good-will of organized labor." The New York *World* (Dem.) also predicts a strong labor opposition to Mr. Taft's candidacy, "despite the skill he shows in discussing the question of injunctions." "Mr. Taft's avoirdupois is too great," writes a capitalist correspondent to the New York *Herald* (Ind.), to "warrant him venturing upon thin ice in his endeavor to set himself right with the labor element."

Mr. Taft began his Cooper-Union speech (on January 10) by emphasizing the interdependence of capital and labor, pointing out that the laborer is benefited by everything which tends to increase the accumulation of wealth and its use for production, while he is injured by whatever threatens the security of invested capital and property, because it tends to make wealth idle. Coming to specific phases of the labor question, Mr. Taft says that workingmen have a right to strike, to delegate to their leaders the power to say when to strike, to accumulate funds to support them during a strike, and to "use persuasion with all other laborers who are invited to take their places, in order to convince them of the advantage to labor of united action." He contends, on the other hand, that the boycott by labor-unions is not only immoral, but illegal. He has equal condemnation for the "black list," and for every form of violence in labor controversies, whether on the part of capital or of labor. Asked after his speech whether he had changed his views since his own issue of injunctions against labor-unions, he answered that he had nothing to retract or modify.

One passage in his speech has been misinterpreted to mean that he advocates the "closed shop." This passage reads:

"What the capitalist who is the employer of labor must face is that the organization of labor—the labor-union—is a permanent condition in the industrial world. It has come to stay. If the employer would consult his own interest he must admit this and act on it.

"Under the existing conditions the blindest course that an employer of labor can pursue is to decline to recognize labor-unions as the controlling influence in the labor market and to insist upon dealing only with his particular employees. Time and time again one has heard the indignant expression of a manager of some great industrial enterprise that he did not propose to have the labor-union run his business; that he would deal with his own men and not with outsiders.

"The time has passed in which that attitude can be assumed with any hope of successfully maintaining it. What the wise managers of corporate enterprise employing large numbers of laborers will do is to receive the leaders of labor-unions with courtesy and respect, and listen to their claims and arguments as they would do to the managers of any other corporate enterprise with whom they were to make an important contract affecting the business between them."

When questioned about this passage the Secretary said that he did not intend to discuss in his speech either the open shop or the closed shop. "Of course," he added, "the non-union man has just as much right to employment as a union man." The New York *Times* (Dem.) explains that "in what he said about conferring with the leaders of labor-unions he evidently had in mind disputes arising between employers and wage-earners already organized as union men." The same paper, however, objects to the assumption in his address that there are any questions between capital and labor. To quote:

"He spoke of the two as tho they were organized entities, adverse in interest, arrayed one against the other. The picture thus presented to the mind is not a true one. Capital is not organized, labor is only in part organized. The labor organizations of the country having a membership of something like 2,000,000, but the number of wage-earners engaged in manufacturing alone is 5,570,321, and this leaves altogether out of the account the immense number engaged in agricultural and mercantile pursuits and in domestic and other service. Mr. Taft says that 'the organization of capital into corporations' gives it a position of advantage in disputes with laborers about wages. A corporation is only an individual employer. 'Capital' would be 'organized' only if all the

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corporations and all the capitalists who are employers should form a union of their own to fight labor. We are afraid the result of that struggle would be pretty bad for labor. There are many natural persons, individual men, who are larger employers of labor than any but the largest artificial persons, corporations. The mistaken notion that capital and labor are arrayed against each other is the parent of innumerable fallacies."

CUBA TO STAND ALONE IN 1909

"WHAT a pity we did not keep Cuba and let the Philippines find another owner!" exclaims a Southern paper, by way of comment upon the glowing picture of Cuban industrial conditions during the past year as painted in Governor Magoon's report. But in the main the United States press applaud President Roosevelt's decision, based upon this report and upon Secretary Taft's advice, to hand over the government of Cuba to the Cubans on February 1, 1909. "If it can be turned over earlier," says the President in a letter to Secretary Taft, "I shall be glad, but under no circumstances and for no reason will the date be later than February 1, 1909." It is clear, as the Washington *Herald* remarks, that President Roosevelt wishes "to finish up the Cuban job before the expiration of his term of office." In forwarding Governor Magoon's report to the President, Secretary Taft writes:

"Governor Magoon has conducted matters in a most clear-headed and tactful way, and with conspicuous success. He has carried on his shoulders the whole burden and responsibility of an extensive government. He has successfully handled numerous important economic questions, including the work of planning and initiating a system of wagon roads coextensive with the island, and other long-needed improvements. . . . . .

"It was hoped by some that the census might be completed in September last. I did not think so, and I am not at all surprized to learn that the census has not yet been completed and probably will not be until April or May. This will postpone the local elections until June, the Presidential election until December."

"There is nothing for us to do but to hand the management of insular affairs back to the Cubans promptly and willingly, leaving the future to take care of itself," remarks the Providence *Journal*. The Philadelphia *Press* is confident that the country will very generally indorse President Roosevelt's decision. "Americans have every reason to be proud of this episode in our own and in Cuba's history," asserts the New York *Evening Post*, which goes on to say:

"When it is considered that $3,000, judiciously placed, can start a revolution in Cuba, the importance of having a firm government after the withdrawal of the American troops is obvious. The Cuban constabulary, under American officers, have been developed into excellent soldiers, and would doubtless be of value in preserving peace if a vigorous American officer were given command and properly supported by the Administration. But President Palma did not know how, or else did not dare, to use the troops he had, and an American commander-in-chief—were the Cubans to agree to him—would be of little avail if the new President failed to back him up. It is hard to conceive of a government unable wholly to control its military; yet the suggestion that the troops should bear to Cuba something of the relation of the Macedonian gendarmerie to the Turkish Government is one that ought to be most carefully considered. And might not the Cubans do well to obtain the services of a strong American administrator as President for some years?"

Says the New York *World*, reviewing our work in the island:

"We have taken the plundered Spanish province and redeemed it, putting it on its way to permanent self-government. We have cleaned its plague-spots, driven out the fever, subdued its marauding bands, made life and property safe, increased its trade, stimulated agricultural growth, and brought order out of conditions that threatened political disintegration.

"What American control has meant to Cuban industry in five years is shown by the increase of our imports from Cuba from $34,694,684 in 1902 to $84,979,821 in 1906. Our exports to Cuba in that period mounted from $26,623,500 to $47,763,688. The total foreign commerce of the island now approximates $200,000,000 annually. Its customs receipts last year increased by $1,500,000 over 1906. Its treasury contains a balance of $15,254,333. The provisional returns from the new census indicate a gain of 509,437 over 1899, with a gratifying increase of the agricultural population."

Hostile criticism of the President's decision seems to come chiefly from Cuba itself. "We are highly disappointed," exclaims *La Discusion*, an influential Havana paper, which believes the solving of the Cuban problem to be "the duty of the American people." This paper goes on to say: "President Roosevelt had in mind his own interests, and not Cuba's, in trying to establish a republic here before the date on which he surrenders the Presidency of the United States." Referring to the implication that Mr. Roosevelt's action is based on Governor Magoon's report, this native newspaper declares that "whoever reads Mr. Magoon's report will notice that the political situation here does not warrant such an unexpected decision." "President Roosevelt's object," according to the *Diario de la Marina*, "is to gratify American politicians and the enemies of free trade with Cuba." Even *La Lucha*, a mouthpiece of the Liberals, is said to be noncommittal in its attitude toward the President's decision. "Apparently the only persons in Cuba to express approval of Mr. Roosevelt's decree," remarks the New York *Herald*, "are General Gomez and Senator Zayas, the heads respectively of the two factions of the Liberal party and each of whom aspires to become candidate for the Presidency of the next Cuban Republic."

TOPICS IN BRIEF

EVEN the jokes aimed at Georgia seem to be getting dryer every day.—*Washington Post.*

INSTEAD of prohibiting the women from smoking, New York Aldermen might set them a good example.—*Chicago Daily News.*

THE beginning of another Thaw trial is causing the expert witnesses to look forward confidently to an early return of prosperity.—*Chicago Record-Herald.*

INASMUCH as grafting is declared to be no crime in California, many a man in Sing Sing will regret that he did not go west when a boy.—*New York Commercial.*

"FINE holiday business; many firms hard prest to supply the demand," reports the *Undertakers' Journal*. That ought to remove the last doubt that prosperity is rapidly getting back on the job.—*Washington Post.*

ANOTHER JAPANESE LOVE-LETTER TO JOHN BULL.

THE BIG FELLOW—"Very interesting! I can't read the language, but no doubt it's something affectionate."

—Bradley in the Chicago *Daily News.*

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FOREIGN COMMENT

SAVING AMERICA FROM THE ASIATICS

TWO methods are proposed for withstanding the inflowing tide of Asiatic nations upon American coasts. "Hark, the Gaul is at thy gates," said the British bard to Rome. "The Asiatic is at thy gates," the press proclaim in chorus to the dwellers in the American continents. Let us unite in Pan-Americanism, cries a party in South America. Let us crowd out the yellow by inducing larger immigraton of the white peoples, is the maxim of Canada. Another chauvinistic utterance of Count Okuma has called forth the appeal to Pan-Americanism, while the failure of Mr. Lemieux's mission to Tokyo has led Canada to feel anxiously the need of white men to people her lands.

Count Okuma, ex-Premier of Japan, and now rector of the University of Waseda, the most important institution of higher education in Japan, is the leader of the Progressists of his native country and is an ardent advocate of Japanese expansion. We treated of his alleged threats against England in our last issue. It is not surprizing to find in the Tokyo *Economist* an article of

THE GULLIVER OF PAN-AMERICANISM.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT—"Yes, yes, union makes strength! Aren't they cute?" —*Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

his in which he states with somewhat brutal frankness his views on the general subject of Japanese emigration. His countrymen are to overspread the face of the earth like a cloud of locusts. As they have alighted on the coasts of North, so they are to swarm into Central and South America. It is well known that labor is difficult to obtain in the mining districts of Chile, for instance, he writes, and this affords an opportunity for stimulating as far as possible the emigration of Japanese workmen to that region. The plethora of population is one of the arguments he puts forth in favor of this movement. There is not enough in Japan to feed and clothe the Japanese. He declares also, with wide political foresight, that he prefers Chile, or Mexico, or Peru, to Brazil, because the three former are nearer to Japan's "sphere of influence on the Pacific."

This article is made the subject of the severest criticism by A. Edwards, Member of the Chilean Parliament and Minister of Foreign Affairs. In the *Mercurio* (Valparaiso) he undertakes to expose "the bellicose meaning" of Count Okuma's proposal, and he warns the nations of South America against the policy which is here divulged with such "audacious lucidity." He finds in the schemes of the Japanese a new reason why the South American nations should inaugurate a Monroe Doctrine of their own. They must adopt Pan-Americanism as the only bulwark against the invader. Thus he says in substance:

Japanese immigration must be firmly opposed not only in South America, but in the whole American continent. The same remark applies to Chinese immigration, since everything that provokes peril or threats for the future is to be avoided, and any discrimination in the treatment of Asiatics would offend the Japanese and arouse their yet unglutted greed for warlike conquest. A pretext might thus be afforded them of proving that their naval and military forces were not intended merely for parade. In short, these threats of Okuma should induce the nations of South America to adopt the Monroe Doctrine, altho hitherto it has been regarded with suspicion by Europe, and with jealousy and fear by the republics of South America for many years past.

Pan-Americanism has indeed no reason for its existence as far as regards Europe, for the tendency of European expansion is purely commercial and pacific. It ought, however, to be adopted as an invincible weapon against the plans and intentions of that "Empire of the Orient" which has so lately risen up to new life, and already manifests so dire a greed of conquest.

While the Canadians seem equally bent on keeping the Orientals from their shores, it is somewhat pitiful to see in contrast to the above patriotic outburst the way in which the Canadian papers regard the failure of Mr. Lemieux's mission to Japan from a purely party standpoint. The comments upon this mission "by journals opposed to the Laurier Government," says the London (Canada) *Advertiser*, "show that Canada is still a child in the sphere of world politics." The Toronto *Globe* is disgusted at "the length to which partizanship will go in this country." This paper adds that "what Canadians will hold on to is that our Pacific shores shall not be overrun with Asiatics."

Much more plain and specific is the statement of the Toronto *Saturday Night*, which thus enlarges on the way in which Asiatics have been admitted into English-speaking countries "on their own terms." This must be put a stop to, we are told. More immigrants from the white nations must be introduced. We read:

"We must possess the country more completely than we do before we can feel sure of it against an invasion from the East. You can walk along a street in either Vancouver or Victoria, and by turning a corner find yourself in Asia. Where a moment before you were in a modern white man's city with wide streets, spacious buildings, brilliant lights, you are now in a close-packed warren of hoary Peking. In a house where fifty whites might have boarded are crowded together a thousand Chinese; in a room where one white man used to sleep, twenty Orientals not only sleep but make their homes. Each house can give forth a population equal to that of a long street of homes occupied by whites. In a roomy continent, with space unlimited, these people pack themselves away like sardines in a box. You come back to the main street from your visit to Chinatown feeling that you have emerged from Asia and the back ages, and you wonder for the rest of your natural life why municipal authorities, so particular in other matters, allow Asia-spots to fasten upon and grow in such places. You wonder that these people are not compelled to conform to Western ways, at least in respect to those sanitary regulations which we deem so important not only to the individual, but to people in the mass. In other words, instead of letting these people come among us on our terms, we accept them on theirs, and where they establish themselves they make complete conquest, turning the spot where they locate yellow as high as the sky and as deep down as the core of the earth. Surely this is all wrong. We hold possession of America—we saw it first—it is worth holding and worth controlling, and we should square away to the job of riveting it down, as ours. It would be foolish to give away points in this great race game."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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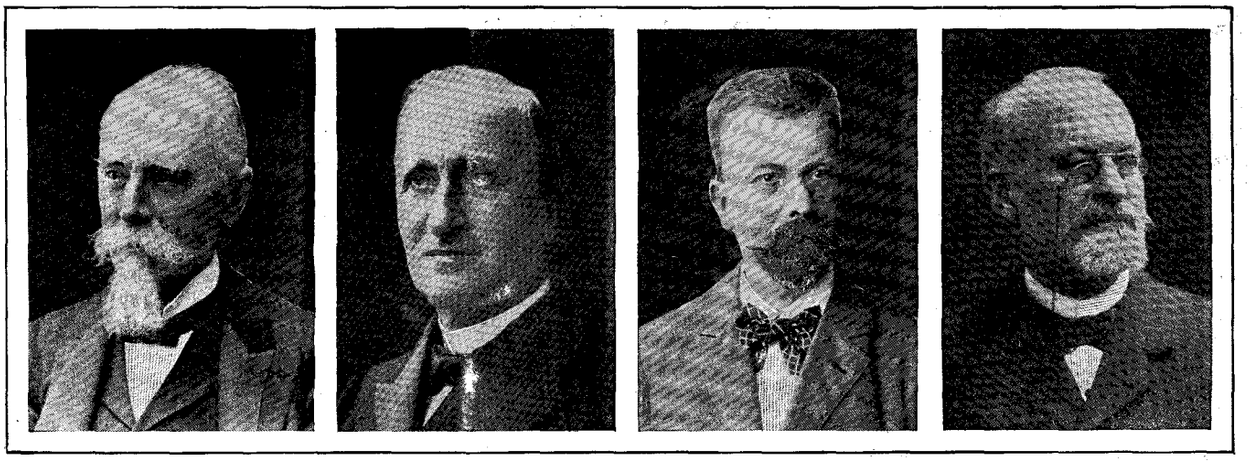

DR. ERNESTO T. MONETA (Milan), Editor of Pacifist organ *Secolo*. Peace Prize.

LOUIS RENAULT (Paris), Member of Hague Peace Tribunal. Peace Prize.

PROF. EDUARD BUCHNER (Berlin), For epoch-making researches in fermentation. Prize for Chemistry.

PROF. CHARLES A. LAVERAN (Paris), Discoverer of the malaria bacillus. Prize for Medicine.

FOUR WINNERS OF NOBEL PRIZES, 1907.

Portraits of Mr. Kipling and Professor Michelson, the other two prize-winners, have already been given in our pages.

THE PEACE PRIZE CHALLENGED

THE various prizes founded by Alfred B. Nobel, inventor of dynamite, have both in their aims and their distribution been frequently criticized by the press. They are not to serve as endowments of research, we are told, but as acknowledgments of success. The strugglers, who, like Palissy and his kind, are sacrificing everything to wring some secret from nature, are unaided and uncheered by them. The solid pecuniary reward is given only to those who have been successful when the time of need is past, and, it is argued, the achievements thus rewarded are of a kind that prizes can neither help nor hinder. A more clear and specific question, or rather one or two questions, are opened by a correspondent of the London *Times*, who writes in French and signs himself "Eirenophilus," "Friend of Peace." He says that the awards which every year are telegraphed over the world from Christiania "excite astonishment." Unknown men are nominated as recipients, for instance, of the Peace Medal. While Nobel, himself a man of deeds, calls in the terms of his endowment for "men whose acts during the preceding year had done most to promote the fraternity of nations," the prize has been given to mere talkers—men who gabble of peace, but do nothing for it—"almost all of those who have been crowned belong to the sect of the Pacifists and are members of the Peace Conference." The Peace Medal has therefore wrought as much evil as good. As this writer remarks:

"All the ravages wrought by Pacifism and Antimilitarism upon the life of nations are, so to speak, instigated by the Peace Prize, which so far has been exclusively bestowed upon those who favor these ideas."

He makes one honorable exception. Of course sovereigns of all kinds who have endeavored to promote peace in the world, and especially the "Peace-Kaiser" of Berlin, should receive a peace prize every year. But none of them has had the occasion or the opportunity of performing some conspicuous act in favor of peace, such as would fulfil the terms of the reward. This, however, the President of the United States has done. To quote:

"The only occasion when the whole world agreed that a man had toiled with genuine zeal for the peace of the world was when President Roosevelt incited the conclusion of the Portsmouth Treaty of Peace, and was justly crowned with the Nobel Prize for having done so."

This writer pleads for transparent impartiality and integrity in making the award, and thinks that "the Nobel Committee ought to be organized upon a broader and more international basis."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE RIGHT TO THE ATMOSPHERE

WHILE the sanest minds are beginning to think that the air-ship, or dirigible balloon, is likely to become as familiar a means of transport as the railway train or steamship, the question is being asked, shall the navigator of the air go where he chooses, and land at his pleasure? How far up in the air do the rights of the landed proprietor, or householder, extend? At present the air-ship is permitted to land in the middle of a garden or a field of standing wheat. Sometimes, as in the case of the *Patrie*, it makes a swathe of desolation through a whole farm. Are air-ships to scrape the tiles, or even the chimneys, off our roofs? More serious is the thought that fortresses may be photographed by a spy, and dangerous explosives dropt by an enemy from the air-ship, which may do so with impunity, because it has not, like the automobile, any number, and, if it had, could not at present be halted and its director arrested.

A writer in the *Hamburger Nachrichten* calls for definite legislation in this matter and states the present condition of things as follows:

"The navigator of the air-ship has so far been allowed at his own sweet will to sail hither and thither in any direction. There is evidently need of some legal regulations in this matter, especially as to the height above the earth at which he may be free, perhaps, also, as to the direction in which he may shape his course. For the rights of the landed proprietor must be guaranteed, and his property protected from damage. According to the law now in force the property rights of the landholder are limited to the surface of the ground which he possesses. While he must have interests in the atmosphere up to a certain limited height, it is difficult to say how high those rights extend. It is easy to see that the property-holder is exposed to damage, even when the air-ship sails above that limited height. The proprietor or occupier of property ought therefore to have some protection against damage or danger from dirigible flying-machines. It is an abominable nuisance, for instance, when an air-ship or dirigible propelled by an ill-smelling motor circles over a man's garden or house at a slight altitude from the earth."

The question of the landing of the air-ship is still more serious. To quote:

"There should be the strictest regulations enforced with regard to the alighting or landing of the air-ship. Hitherto, descending air-ships, when they landed on the ground, have been received as if their occupants were shipwrecked mariners, altho their descent may have been accompanied with serious damage to the place. Sometimes they crush in the roof of a house or tear up a whole farm, as did the lost French balloon *Patrie*. As a dirigible is supposed to be under control, this fact makes more reasonable the demand that definite landing-places should be appointed. It

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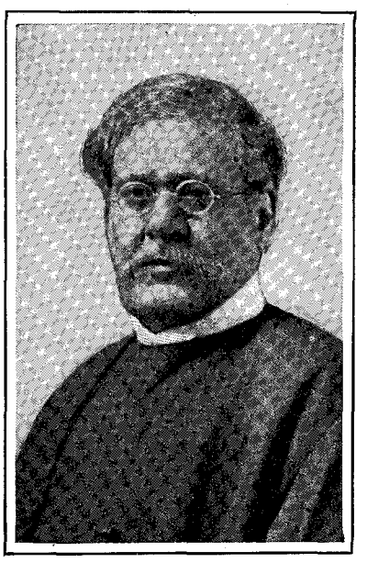
should no longer be permitted the navigator of the air to land in a pleasure-garden or park. He who lands in a place not designated by law should be held liable for the damage done. Perhaps the proper landing-place for foreign balloons would be the custom-house of the various towns or villages."

But regulations of the sort specified become of the widest political importance when we consider the rights, not only of individuals, but of states which will need to be protected. On this point the writer expatiates as follows:

"In the near future we may expect contingencies in which balloons and flying-machines will have the power of violating the rights and ravaging the property not only of individuals, but of nations. It is easy to realize the possibility of an air-ship's arrival from a foreign country to hover over our country as a station for wireless telegraphy for the interception of messages. Flying at a distance of some hundred meters above a fortress, the air-ship may afford an opportunity for taking photographs of the place. For these reasons the movements of air-ships should be regulated by the most definite law."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE HINDU NATIONALIST COLLAPSE

CONSIDERABLE remark is caused in the London papers by the fact that the "Indian National Congress," held in Surat to promote the independence of India and demonstrate its feasibility, broke up amid a scene of the wildest violence as soon as it began. When Dr. Ghose, the Moderate leader, took his seat as chairman, "a Mahratta shoe," as the correspondent of the London *Daily Mail* says, "was thrown at the platform," and "a wave of Extremists surged over the barriers and the table, with sticks and chairs, from out the audience of 10,000 people, and after a long contest the Moderate leader retired through the back of the pavilion, leaving an immense crowd fighting in groups."



DR. RASH BEHARI GHOSE.

He is leader of the Moderates in the Indian National movement and was expelled from his seat by the Extremists during the recent congress at Surat, of which he had been elected president.

The platform of the Nationalists, "India for the Indians," through such "self-government as obtains in other parts of the Empire," was not sufficient for the Extremists, who would seize upon India by force and govern it for themselves. Their choice for president of the Congress was Lala Rajpat Rai, who some months ago was deported from the Punjab for seditious utterances. Lala Rajpat Rai, according to *The Friend of India* (Calcutta), was far from desiring the presidency, and profest "the fullest confidence" in the elected Moderate president's "patriotism and fitness for the impartial discharge of the duties of his high office."

The London *Times*, commenting on what it styles the "ridiculous termination" of the Surat meeting, blames the Moderates. "They wanted to make the people of England think that the Congress represented the 'Indian nation.'" "In their hearts they knew it did not." They showed "lack of moral courage" in this as well as in their "silent countenancing of the dissemination of sedition." The consequence is that the Congress, which "might be a powerful instrument for good," has become "a mockery on its own aspirations." "The whole fabric of its pretensions was shattered in a moment when a single Mahratta shoe came hurtling through the air."

There is no use for any such Congress in meeting the natural and patriotic aspirations of Hindus, declares *The Standard* (London), and "satisfying the legitimate aspirations of a new India," and "it is a pity to attach much importance to the Surat meeting," for "whether the members come to an agreement or hurl slippers and vituperation at each other's heads, we shall be no nearer to a solution of the problem."

The Congress, says *The Daily Chronicle* (London), has no real existence excepting "as a center of wordy discontent." Its members are largely recruited from educated Hindu "malcontents" who long for a share in administrative work which is not granted them. Of these delegates *The Chronicle* remarks:

"In themselves they are not formidable, but recent events suggest that their systematic attacks upon the Indian Government are beginning to influence the Hindu peasantry. This is a symptom which that Government would do well to watch and, if unrest continues to show itself, the Babu talkers and preachers of sedition must be called to order. To insure respect in the East, a government must be strong and not shrink from enforcing its will upon the Lala Rajpat Rais and their like."

The split between Moderates and Extremists is now complete, says *The Westminster Review* (London), which adds:

"For our part, we regret this split, because we would prefer to see one strong united congress in which there may be free expression of opinion; but at the same time the Extremists can not expect that the Moderates will allow themselves to be associated with methods and policies of which they do not approve."

The Congress may quite justify its existence, declares *The Daily News* (London), so long as the Moderates, who are the ruling party at its sessions, maintain their supremacy. But there are real evils to be redressed in India. In the words of this paper:

"Some reforms, such as the establishment of elementary education, the separation of the judicial from the administrative service, and the more generous admission of Indians to official life, are long overdue."

The London *Saturday Review* hopes that this incident may after all lead to good results, and remarks:

"If this silly business opens the eyes of the many true patriots who desire India's advancement, to the real character of the present movement, good may come out of evil. There is an immense and almost untrodden field of usefulness open to organizations which will devote themselves to developing the material resources of the country, to the gradual creation of a public spirit working with zeal and purity for the public good, and above all to the cautious and gradual introduction of measures of social reform. Such an effort could reckon on the cordial support of the Indian Government, and would further the scheme of evolution recently outlined to the Secretary of State. Let them further learn from the present lesson that such organizations must be strictly local or provincial, and must embrace all classes, not merely those who now claim a monopoly of education. Let them enlist the great agencies of caste and creed. Let them eschew politics till a juster conception of their own limitations has revealed the false direction of past efforts and has purged the movement of those false guides, Moderate or Extreme, who have made the whole movement so ridiculous at Surat."

The split in the party which is predicted by *The Westminster Gazette* as above quoted is strongly deprecated by Rajpat Rai, who condemns the Extremists for refusing the election of Dr. Ghose (Moderate) as president and putting himself (Rajpat Rai) forward. He declares in a letter to the Lahore *Tribune*: "I shall be the last person to allow myself to be made the reason or occasion of any split in the National camp."

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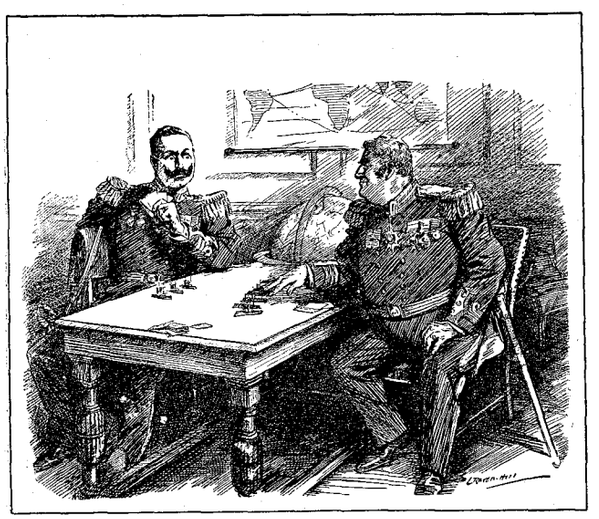
GERMANY'S DENIAL OF DESIGNS ON HER NEIGHBORS

FROM time to time we read in the French and English newspapers, when they come to discuss international relations, that Germany is anxious to extend her frontiers east and west. Particularly are the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium mentioned as objects of covetousness to the Government of William II., which desires to control the Rhine down to its debouchment. Bohemia, as lying between Bavaria and Prussian Silesia, is also, we are frequently told, threatened by German annexation, and even the neighboring French provinces of Champagne and Burgundy are spoken of as grape clusters which the German fox eyes with watering lips. All this, however, is poohpoohed by the German press, and the semiofficial *Continental Correspondence* (Berlin) takes the trouble categorically to deny it. There are two main reasons why Germany should decline to extend her borders. The French, says this paper, think Germany must have more territory in order to feed her population, growing each year by an excess of 850,000 births over the deaths. The French predict starvation or famine in Germany. Says *The Correspondence:*

"On a little reflection or simply by glancing at the economic facts, this specter of the Brocken vanishes. For the same Germany, that according to this notion ought to be overcrowded with hands for whom no work can be found, imports growing numbers of foreign laborers. The landed proprietors and agrarian parties have coined the catchword '*Leutenot*' [labor famine] for the notorious scarcity of field-laborers. Moreover, thousands and thousands of Poles, Russians, Galicians, Ruthenians, Croatians are engaged as laborers in German industrial and agricultural concerns, and if one looks round in the streets of German cities one is struck by the absence of beggars and idlers such as abound in other countries. Certainly Germany is in a position not only to feed her own children, but even to offer a livelihood to foreign immigrants, and on that account needs no annexation or expansion."

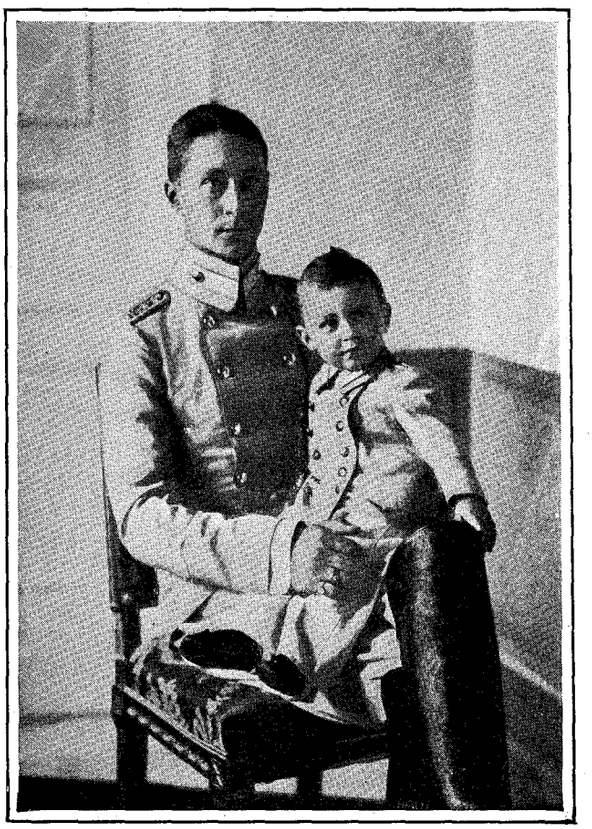
The second is a purely political consideration. By annexing other countries the balance of political power among the German States, and the balance of German parties in the Reichstag, would be quite disorganized. In other words, German nationalism, from a political standpoint, would be swamped. Germany is not like the United States, where there are only two main



POKER AND TONGUES;
Or, how we've got to play the game.
KAISER—"I go you three *Dreadnoughts!*"
JOHN BULL—"Well, just to show there's no ill feeling, I raise you three." —*Punch* (London).

parties and these quite unconnected with religion. Hence the following remark:

"The structure of German Federalism is entirely different from that of the United States, where the position of the Federal Government is little affected by the addition of a new star to the national banner. In Germany, however, the whole mutual relations of the leading state of Prussia with the other states would be altered by considerable additions to the aggregate of the other allies. Nor would Bavaria have the same weight in the councils



THE YOUNGEST SOLDIER IN EUROPE.

This is Prince William Frederick, the two-year-old son of Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany. He wears the coat of an officer of the line.

of the Empire if new territories of equal size should be included in the Empire. The danger would be greater still if the population in the annexed districts should by their economic or religious tendencies disturb the present equilibrium of parties. Nobody in Germany would think it desirable to annex the German provinces of Austria with their ultramontane population; as thereby the Center party would gain an overwhelming majority in the Reichstag, a change which the Protestants will never admit."

The writer of this article takes occasion in conclusion to explain why the Germans annexed Alsace and Lorraine. According to *The Continental Correspondence*, it was not because Bismarck wanted merely to extend the frontiers of the country or to add to its population by the addition of a foreign people. The Alsatians and Lorrainers were, as a matter of fact, he alleges, no more than separated elements of the German nation, and by the treaty which followed Sedan were actually restored to their natural allegiance. The French, whose cries for revenge have been repeatedly heard ever since, would seem to justify the seizure by Germany of the fortress of Metz, which self-defense forbade them leaving in French hands. Thus we read:

"The German Empire has, as is well known, a national basis and is therefore opposed to an addition of provinces with a large population of foreign stock. It finds it perplexing enough already to assimilate the two or three million Poles, who object to the tendencies of the prevalent nationality. When in 1871 the question of territorial cessions was to be settled, Bismarck wanted on principle only Alsace and that part of Lorraine where the population was German, and annexed the fortress of Metz only because military experts pointed to the advantage the French would derive from this impregnable outpost in case of a war of revenge."

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RUSSIA REVISING ITS ESTIMATE OF GERMANY

THE Russians are probably not a people inclined to understand the character and appreciate the achievements of other people, any more than France could appreciate "*perfide Albion*," or the Englishman admire the French as delineated by Charles Lever. So the Russians have for many years laughed at the German peasant, despised German courage, sneered at "the love of the Fatherland," and considered that they were extolling Russian courage by depreciating that of their neighbors. The *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg), which, as some of the German papers remark, usually speaks most unfavorably of Germany, now declares that this state of public opinion may well be changed, and puts forth a plea in favor of German superiority. Thus we read:

"Altho we Russians have really very little knowledge of Germany, we have always cherished unfriendly feelings toward that country, and up to this present moment continue to do so. Even after her victories in the Franco-Prussian War the 'German Michel' continued to be a butt for the ridicule of Russian society and the Russian press. The Russian authors, such as Shtchedrin and Nemivoritch-Dantshenko, frequently indulged in bitter gibes at German 'love of Fatherland.' They failed to see that their depreciation of German military valor reflected far more upon the Russians than upon the Germans. Since then we have had bitter cause to deplore our mistake. We have done the Germans not the slightest harm through our estimate of them, and it was well said by Stanislavsky in 1903 that we should have some day to rue our readiness to carp at the victorious successes of a neighboring people who certainly were a pattern to ourselves."

The writer tries to shame his countrymen into acknowledging all the Germans have done in peace and war, and to show how entirely they have outstript the Russians. He says:

"Compare our achievements with those of Germany. Thirty-five years ago the German fleet was insignificant in comparison with that of Russia. To-day Germany belongs to the great sea Powers, and in 1920 will be a match for England at sea, while Russia's Navy has sunk to zero. Germany's merchant marine dominates every sea, and Hamburg, Kiel, Danzic, Stettin, and Elbing have dockyards of world-wide renown. While we were crowing over Germany, she was laboring night and day for advancement. Within a very short time she has instituted a Naval League (*Flottenverein*) in which the very women and school-children are interested. Altho she has passed through many and manifold crises of a social or political character, the welfare of the people has increased, wages have risen ten per cent., and the imports have almost doubled in value, while the exports have doubled exactly. The Germans may well be proud of all these triumphs."

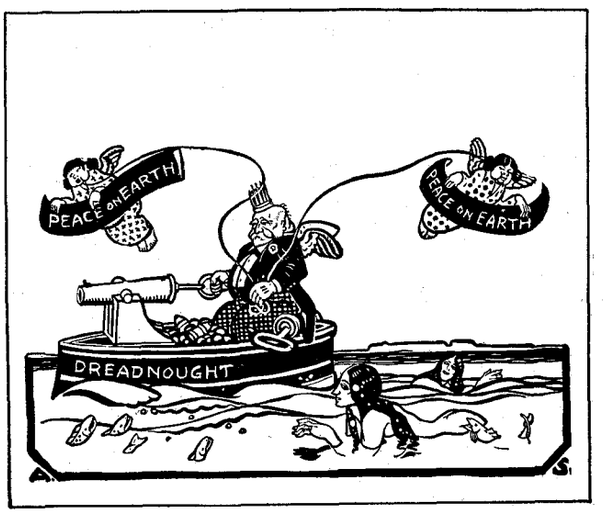
The writer next compares the character of the popular party in Russia with that of the popular party in Germany. While the latter would die for their country, the Russian Socialists are without a spark of patriotism. He observes:

"Our Social Democrats would gladly see our beloved Russia fallen into a pit, and not one would stretch forth a hand to help her out. But Bebel, the leader of the German Social Democracy, has loudly proclaimed in the Reichstag that his party always stands ready to defend their Fatherland whenever circumstances demand it. In sad contrast with this patriotic enthusiasm may be cited also the conduct of the French Socialists, who fiercely cry out against militarism and are rapidly reducing their country to the rank of a second-class Power, with which no government thinks of contracting in earnest a treaty or alliance."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

A SLAP FOR MAURICE LOW.—Mr. Maurice Low, writing to *The Morning Post* (London), has made a covert attack upon President Roosevelt's honesty. He says, "I do not impugn Mr. Roosevelt's sincerity. . . . I merely state a very wide-spread belief." On this the London *Spectator* remarks:

"Of such writing we can only say that we do impugn its sincerity. We can look into another man's heart when he writes like this, and we see plainly that what he is doing is to suggest a charge of insincerity which he has not the courage to make boldly and directly. We make no objection to Mr. Low preferring such a charge openly and on his own responsibility, for we hold that the freest criticism of its governing men is absolutely essential to a nation's political welfare. Mr. Low would be, in our opinion, grossly mistaken in directly charging Mr. Roosevelt with political insincerity; but it is a matter in which the accuser could quite well be honestly mistaken. What he has no right to do is to prefer his charge in the insidious and indirect fashion which he has adopted. . . . . .

"Mr. Low's letter contains in addition an elaborate attempt to show that the President has failed in everything which he has undertaken. We have not space here to traverse in detail a statement so grotesque, tho the task would not be difficult; but we may point out that Mr. Low seems incapable of understanding what is the President's chief claim on the gratitude of his countrymen. Apparently he does not realize that Mr. Roosevelt has immensely raised the standard of political honor throughout America, and that he has given an impulse to right-thinking and right-doing in public life the effect of which will be felt long after his more personal claims to fame have been forgotten."



EDWARD AS PEACEMAKER.

"Disarmament," says Edward, "should be praised and magnified."
But if you try to practise it he'll surely get your hide.
—*Jugend* (Munich).

THE ERA OF PEACE.

Will this be the sequel to the Hague Conference?
—*Fischietto* (Turin).

IN THE SHADOW OF THE PEACE ANGEL.

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SCIENCE AND INVENTION

WHERE MEN GROW TALL

THAT the height of the human body depends on its surroundings and mode of life seems to be proved by a recent study of bodily measurements made in Switzerland; but the results are at variance with all previous ideas on the subject. These results, which appear in the *Journal de Statistique Suisse* (Berne) are discust by Dr. L. Lalog in *Cosmos* (Paris, December 14). He says:

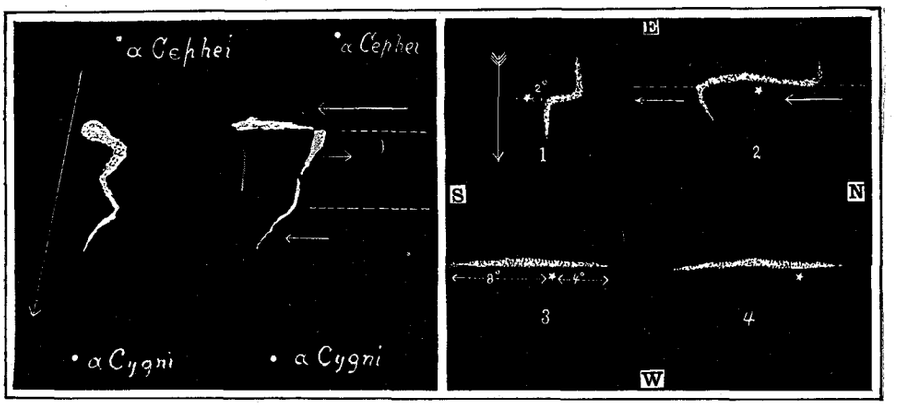
"It is very hard to determine the respective importance of the many factors that play a part in determining the height of the human body. Race evidently is the most important; social environment also has an undeniable influence. Is physical environment also influential? This has sometimes been asserted without positive proof. To solve the problem Messrs. Pittard, Karmin, and Kappeyne have undertaken a series of investigations on height in the Swiss cantons. These territories, of small extent and of rather homogeneous population, are well fitted for a study of this sort, because of the variety of their physical conditions. The first of these studies is devoted to Valais and . . . is based on figures from the military recruitment for 1889–91. Race, habitation, and food are very uniform in this canton, and its very simple arrangement of mountain and valley makes possible some interesting comparisons."

The results of this study show, we are told, that bodily height varies with altitude, having a tendency to be greater at higher places—which is precisely contrary to the theory of ancient writers. The influence of sunlight and of the underlying geological strata is also investigated. That of the former is very easily studied in Valais, since the canton is split in two by the Rhone Valley, of which the right slope faces the south and the left slope the north. Says the writer:

"Comparing zones of equal altitude, it is found that places on the left bank have taller inhabitants than those on the right bank, altho the latter receives more sunlight. This is true in three out of four zones of altitude and in eleven out of thirteen districts. . . . For all three kinds of factors studied, the results are in contradiction to hitherto received hypotheses. In Valais, height does not decrease as altitude increases; it is greater in regions less exposed to the sun and also greater on primitive rock than on limestone."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

METEOR TRAINS IN THE UPPER WINDS

METEORS, when dissipated in the upper air, frequently leave behind them luminous or cloud-like trains, and the way in which these drift along enables meteorologists to establish the existence and direction of air-currents at altitudes about which it would be difficult to gain information in any other way. Kites are not usually sent up beyond four miles; cloud observations do not extend higher than eight miles, and recording balloons do not usually operate successfully at a greater altitude than twelve miles; but luminous meteor trains are from forty-five to sixty-five miles above the earth's surface. Says Prof. C. C. Trowbridge, of Columbia University, writing in *The Monthly Weather Review* (Washington):



METEOR TRAIN OF NOVEMBER 14, 1866, 2:40 A M., Showing rapid current at the level of the upper portion of the train.

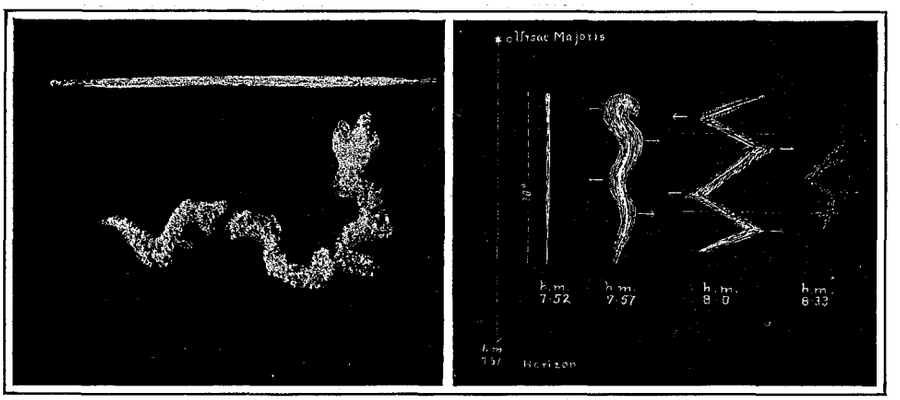
METEOR TRAIN OF NOVEMBER 14, 1868, Showing effect of currents in opposite directions at different levels on a vertical train.

"The systematic observation and study of meteor trains is of much importance to meteorology because it is the only means by which the presence as well as the direction and velocity of atmospheric currents at very great altitudes above the surface of the earth can be determined. There has been little, if any, systematic work done in this direction heretofore. It is possible that one of the chief reasons for this fact is that the observations of meteor trains have been made almost entirely by astronomers, often in an incidental manner when engaged in other work; while the results obtained relating to the atmosphere and principally of interest to meteorologists have been published in astronomical journals and hence overlooked by those most interested in the subject.

"Meteor trains are apparently self-luminous clouds which are usually deposited by large meteors, and particularly those that are swift moving, like the Leonids and Perseids. Astronomers who have made frequent meteor observations are familiar with the phenomenon, but few have taken up the matter further than to make records of the trains which they have seen. . . . . .

"The altitude above the surface of the earth at which meteor trains occur when seen at night is between about forty-five and sixty-five miles. The height most favorable for longest visible duration appears to be about fifty-five miles. . . . It is the opinion of the writer that the density of the atmosphere prevailing at the altitude mentioned is favorable both for the formation and for the long duration of the persistent train. . . . . .

"Trains of meteors which fall in daylight or twilight are not infrequently seen. They are apparently thin smoke-trains illuminated



METEOR TRAIN OF NOVEMBER 14, 1866, Showing rapid distortions by air-currents.

METEOR TRAIN SEEN OVER PERSIAN GULF, JUNE 8, 1883, Showing the effect of currents in different directions at different altitudes.

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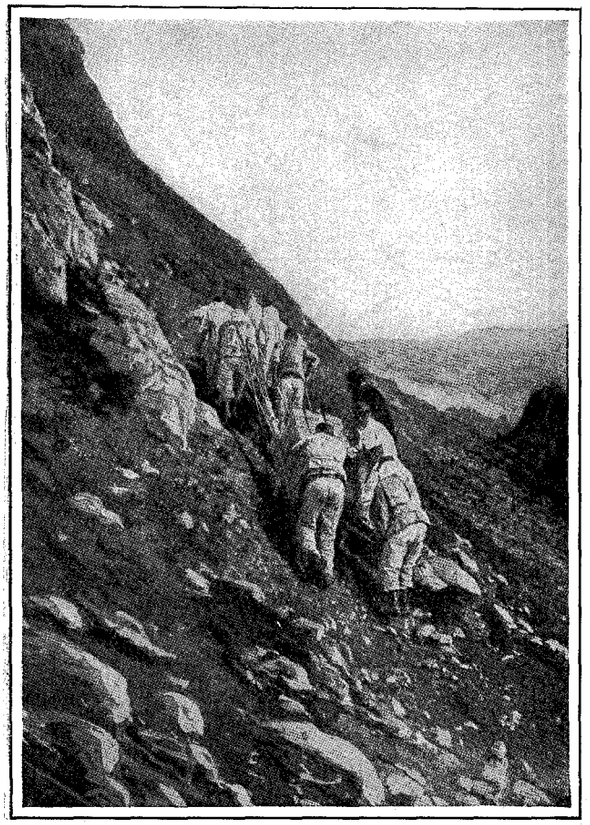
by the light of the sun, and according to measurements occur as low as twenty-five miles altitude, but seldom above fifty miles, or between 40 and 80 kilometers. The trains seen at night, however, are usually, if not always, above forty-five miles. It is thus



GETTING HEAVY INSTRUMENTS UP THE PIC DU MIDI.

seen that meteor trains occur at an altitude that is far above the regions which we are ordinarily familiar with."

Drift toward the east predominates, we are told, altho in the north temperate zone the trains may drift in any other direction, and in some cases the drift of daylight trains has been persistently westward. Velocities vary from fifty to one hundred miles an hour, and rapid movement is not uncommon. We read further:

"There is almost conclusive evidence that there are at all times in the upper atmosphere superimposed currents of different velocities; usually those adjacent are in different directions in zones of from five to ten miles in depth; in some cases in one zone there will be almost a calm, while directly above or below it there will be a current of considerable velocity.

"It is the writer's opinion that there are always a number of these superimposed atmospheric strata with drifts in different directions. Many descriptions of trains record the appearance of several bends in the train, often referred to as 'M's' and 'N's' gradually formed after the train has lasted for some minutes. The arms (the straight parts of the letters), which correspond to the distances between bends in the train, are miles in extent; hence these curious distortions in the trains can arise from but one cause: namely, the variation in the velocity or direction of the currents of the atmosphere at different altitudes. . . . The same forces must be present in the upper atmosphere that are active near the surface of the earth. It would seem probable therefore that there are gradients of pressure, and hence unstable conditions, at various levels up to a height of sixty miles, sufficient to account for the observed movements in different strata at these great altitudes. The upper drifts would be thus similar to the well-known superimposed air-currents in different directions near the earth. The fact that there are currents of high velocity in the upper atmosphere, and so often in different directions and probably changing in level serves as good evidence that the composition of the atmosphere must be quite uniform up to heights corresponding to very low gas pressures."

THE SPORTING LIFE OF ASTRONOMY

HOW astronomers are forced to become Alpine climbers to get their instruments to the tops of mountains is described in *Je Sais Tout* (Paris, December) by Lucien Rudaux. The writer insists that these cloud-seeking astronomers have become devotees of sport, and he calls to witness the facts he details in his article, which he entitles "Les Savants Sportifs" (Sport-loving Scientists). Says Mr. Rudaux:

"We know all that can be learned by ordinary methods of observation. To go further in the way of discovery we must mount toward the sky and place ourselves in better atmospheric conditions. But this astronomic Alpinism is exempt from neither trouble nor danger.

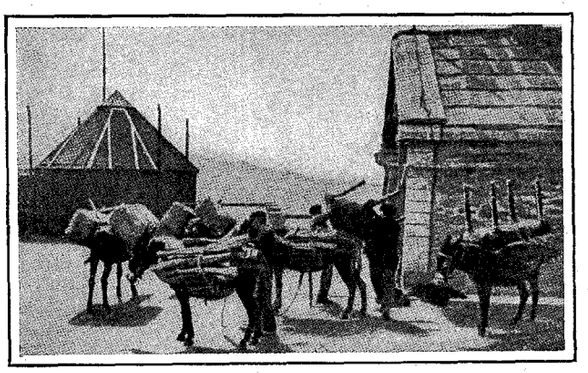
"Thus, when Joseph Vallot, the well-known French astronomer, resolved to build an observatory on the Bosses of Mont Blanc, at 4,372 meters altitude, he had all the trouble in the world to find guides who would agree to accompany him, as they knew that the leader of the expedition intended to pass several days on top of the Giant of the Alps.

"This preliminary expedition was to determine the place and method of construction of the future observatory. . . . The sojourn at this altitude was not altogether pleasant. Alone with his assistant and two guides, the astronomer camped in a tent six by five feet, where, . . . victims of mountain sickness, the Alpinists passed their nights wrapt in plaids, their heads supported by sacks or by frozen loaves of bread, trying to sleep. . . . Obliged finally to close their tent to keep out the snow, they were almost smothered, but they made astronomical observations and also physiological observations (on mountain sickness) of great interest. Later, Vallot established on the Rocher des Bosses a portable chalet consisting of eight pieces, provided with the necessary instruments and otherwise conveniently arranged for scientific work. . . . . .

"Afterward, Janssen, at the age of seventy-one years, built, on the very summit of Mont Blanc, a convenient observatory, 15 by 30 feet, all of whose parts and instruments, with the venerable director himself, were hoisted up by means of a system of pulleys devised by him."

There are now a considerable number of mountain observatories, we are told, running from the one on Puy de Dome (4,800 feet) up to the one at Arequipa, Peru (16,400). We read:

"It should be noted that the one on Monte Rosa owes its name of 'Queen Margherita' to the fact that the Queen of Italy, who is a valiant Alpinist, visited this establishment and passed the night there. . . . The establishment of these observatories in these almost inaccessible places has not taken place without difficulties. Those of the ascent have not been the only ones; it has also been necessary to withstand bad weather, cold, and storms, and to



ARRIVAL OF SUPPLIES AT AN OBSERVATORY.

struggle with the masses of snow that bury these heights almost out of sight. . . . . .

"Buildings at such elevations are very costly to erect. This may easily be seen when we are told that a cubic meter of sand brings, on the top of the Pic du Midi, 500 francs [$100]. So with water, cement, wood, iron, etc. And how much effort do these heavy instruments represent, that may be seen quietly standing in the observatory! To reach this point they were packed in cases weighing

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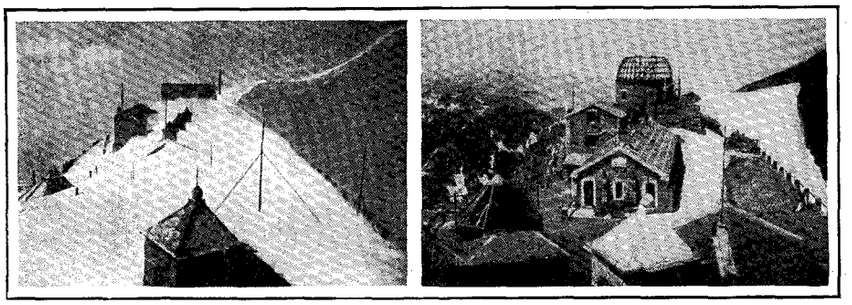
about 500 kilos [1,100 pounds] each. Imagine them hauled along these slopes by artillerymen of the Fourteenth Regiment! . . . . .

"But it is not alone to build observatories that astronomers scale mountains, . . . as is shown by the experience of the writer during the solar eclipse of August 30, 1905. Not desiring to follow his colleagues into Spain to observe the phenomenon, he left Barèges accompanied by two friends and a guide who led a mule bearing the heavier instruments, the baggage, and the provisions.



PIC DU MIDI OBSERVATORY.
Winter and summer views.

But in spite of mountain experience, the unfortunate beast could not get above 2,200 meters [7,216 feet], so there was nothing for the astronomers to do but to turn themselves into pack animals and hoist up the heavy instruments to the place where the temporary observatory was to be installed. There a slight shelter was built with stones, and the climbers spent three days there, lying close, while a terrific storm raged around. And the cold! . . . There was no fuel, because the stock of alcohol had been exhausted on the way up. Then there was the snow!

"And to crown all, the eclipse took place without giving them the least chance in the world to observe it. All this trouble and suffering was absolutely in vain! . . . Such are the useless martyrdoms to which one is subjected by a love for astronomy! This is certainly astronomic sporting life!"—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

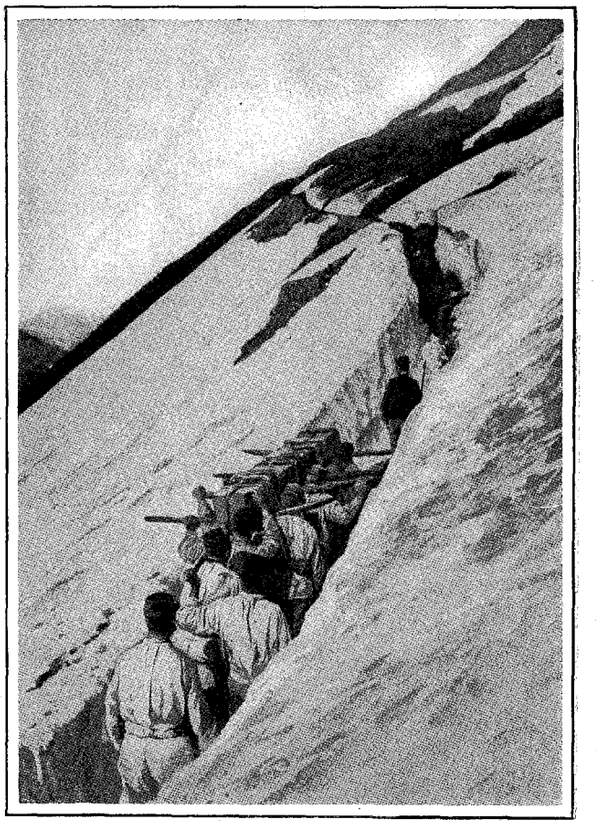
EDUCATION AND GENERAL INTELLIGENCE

THE conclusion that the average child, five years after leaving school, has forgotten almost everything he ever learned there, was recently reached by Rodenwald, a German experimenter. His investigations were originally undertaken, as we learn from a paper by Dr. Otto Klieneberger in *Deutsche Medizinische Wochenschrift* (October 31), in the hope of obtaining a normal standard for comparison with mentally defective individuals, but his results showed that the same sum of errors which was to be expected among defective patients may occur among sound individuals. Dr. Klieneberger himself, with the object of testing the intelligence of school-children, examined the 39 children of the highest class of a primary school, two corresponding classes of a secondary school with 39 scholars, and 58 university students. Says *The British Medical Journal* (London, December 7) in a review of his article:

"The subjects were examined under uniform conditions, and had to reply as promptly as possible to fifty-five test questions, reaction times being measured by a fifth-second stop-watch. A striking feature of the questions was their general simplicity, so much so that mistakes would appear almost impossible for the average boy. As examples, a few may be given here: What is your name? What is your father? How long have you been at school? When did you pass your matriculation examination? What is the price of a roll? Out of what is bread made? How does one travel to America? What is the difference between a tree and a shrub? How many legs has a cockchafer? What is the difference between a misstatement and a lie? Give examples of gratitude and courage? Paintings were also shown and the pupils afterward told to describe the scenes represented, and sentences given in which parts of the words had been erased, the omissions to be filled up by the examinees (Ebbinghaus's method), and also words were given out of which they were to form sentences. The school-children were between thirteen and fifteen years of age, and had been at school from six to eight years. The average age of the univeristy students is not given. Notwithstanding the elementary character of the questions, the 58 students gave 134 incorrect answers, the secondary-school pupils 221, and those of the primary school 329. Most of the questions required mere knowledge, but some involved judgment. Naturally mistakes of judgment were more numerous than those of simple information—in the students three times as great, in the secondary scholars five times as great, and in the primary scholars five and a half times as great."

Dr. Klieneberger found a general correspondence between accuracy and quickness of response, and he even goes so far as to lay down a general law that quickness and correctness of response to the simplest questions furnish a reliable measure of the degree of intelligence. The reviewer of *The Medical Journal*, however, refuses to accept such a conclusion. He says:

"A man may be the greatest philosopher, and still be in doubt about the legs of a cockchafer, may hesitate disastrously as to the way to America or the constituents of flour, and consume at least 2 minutes 55 seconds in reciting the months of the year backward—one of the interesting questions given. As Hughlings Jackson once said, man should be thankful for his power of forgetting, and



A CRACK IN THE SNOW—PIC DU MIDI.

we should not be surprized to learn that the pupils who gave longest reaction times and the greatest numbers of errors in these tests became the most distinguished in the end. Time limits in examinations often throw out the best as well as the worst, and deductive genius is seldom accompanied by an encyclopedic memory for detail."

In this connection, the writer in *The Medical Journal* refers to

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the article by Harold Gorst, entitled "The Curse of Education," already noticed in these columns. Gorst's view that "facts should be regarded as poisons, to be used sparingly and with discrimination," and his statement that "every time a fact is imparted an idea is driven out," are regarded by the critic as extreme. He says:

"The useless facts called poisons by Mr. Gorst become isolated and sterile in the scholar's mind, and finally atrophy. What average length of time elapses before this happy process of obliteration is fulfilled it would be interesting to know, and we have often thought that systematic yearly reexaminations of ex-pupils for, say, five years after leaving school would furnish a valuable commentary on educational systems."

If the results of Rodenwald and of Klieneberger are to hold good universally such a reexamination might bring out some sad facts.

TIRES FOR ARCTIC USE

THE recent proposals to go pole-hunting in motor-cars, and the project of a New-York-to-Paris run via Bering Strait, have started a discussion regarding the best tires for use in arctic temperature. The properties of rubber at very low temperatures not having been thoroughly investigated, a series of experiments has recently been made in New York by David Hays, who describes them as follows in an interview printed in *The Times* (New York). Says Mr. Hays:

"It has been known that cold does affect rubber, but to how great an extent has never been definitely determined, as the temperatures, even in winter, in the localities where motor-cars are most frequently used, have not been severe enough to cause any material injury to the vulcanized rubber of pneumatic tires.

"The experiments were made in the factory of the Liquid Carbonic Company of this city, which makes a business of compressing carbonic acid into tanks for various uses, many of which are used in garages for inflating pneumatic tires. The ordinary pressure in the tanks is not sufficient to produce a marked degree of cold as the gas enters the tire. To produce excessive cold for the experiments, gas under enormous pressure was allowed to escape through an orifice into the atmosphere, the expansion drawing heat from the gas and causing a part of it to solidify, this solidified gas, or 'carbonic snow,' having a temperature of about 108° below zero.

"To conduct the experiment with rubber, a glass vessel containing alcohol was packed with this carbonic snow, the temperature slowly going down, readings being taken with a carefully graduated thermometer. This seemed to be the simplest plan by which a fairly constant temperature could be maintained for a few minutes.

"Thin strips of vulcanized rubber had been previously prepared and dried, being taken from the treads of various well-known makes of pneumatic tires and from inner tubes. These strips of rubber were cut up, doubled over, and held in a little clip, which could be instantly removed. When the rubber was warm it would, of course, spring back instantly into its flattened shape. These samples of rubber were then placed in the cold alcohol, and as the temperature dropt well below zero the rubber began to lose its elasticity.

"Between 30 and 40° below zero its action was quite sluggish, and when the clip was removed after the sample had been subjected to the cold for a short time the rubber straightened out very slowly. By reducing the temperature to between 40 and 50° below zero the rubber was found to harden in the position in which it was held by the clip, and when this was removed the rubber remained in its doubled-up position for some time, gradually unbending as the heat from the atmosphere warmed it.

"It was also shown by the experiment that the purer the rubber, that is to say, the less amount of compounding with other materials, the better its ability to withstand extreme cold. For a pneumatic tire, however, it is impracticable to use pure Para rubber and sulfur on the tread, the reason being that it would be too tender and unable to give service on the road.

"Another test made was to insert a piece of rubber into the frozen carbonic acid, and it was found that, after being left there for a minute or two, it had frozen solid and under the blow of a hammer it was shattered like vulcanite.

"On the other hand, a piece of leather such as is used for auto tires was placed in this extremely cold substance for a considerable time, and when removed showed absolutely no change, being as pliable before as after."

IMPROVEMENTS IN ANESTHETICS

COMMENTING on reports of the success in Paris of Professor Leduc's "natural" anesthesia, induced by the application of intermittent electric currents to the head, which is said to be quite without danger to life, inducing no functional disturbance of heart, lungs, or any other organ or mechanism, a writer in *The Medical Times* (New York, January) says:

"Such claims as these have been made—and quite recently—for other newly discovered anesthetics; yet in routine surgical practise lumbar puncture, the scopolamine method, the use of magnesium salts, and the like seem all to have been discarded. They have not in fact induced a state of unconsciousness sufficiently profound for satisfactory major work. It should, moreover, be borne in mind that the surgeon requires not only unconsciousness sufficient to permit the use of the knife; there must also be complete relaxation of the muscles and tissues and a measurable assurance that an operation once begun shall be carried on to undisturbed completeness. And in these regards nothing has quite taken the place of ether and chloroform.

"Claim has been made for the newer anesthetics that they are much safer than the old. But an absolutely safe anesthetic is a contradiction in terms. The little experience we have had of the newer methods has abundantly shown them to be by no means entirely safe.

"An anesthetic which will induce insensibility sufficiently deep for satisfactory surgery must in the nature of things stand for some danger; any one profoundly anesthetized is always very near the border-line between life and death. This all physicians understand; and that is why we are ourselves, of all people, the greatest cowards and the most unwilling to undergo operation. The reason why the patient so rarely goes beyond the border-line lies not so much in the agent employed as in the skill of the experienced anesthetizer, who knows the properties of the drug he uses, who, after a thorough examination, has taken all precautions, who foresees all possible 'accidents,' who will not trust to luck, and who remains vigilant throughout and until the return to consciousness.

"It is certainly most desirable that search will be continued for an anesthetic safer than any we now possess; but it is probable that in most cases we shall find no better method than to begin with nitrous oxid—the initial shock due to fright, which is probably the most prolific cause of disaster from an anesthetic, is thus best avoided—and from this gradually, by the use of a suitable apparatus, to go on to ether. An enterprising and astute colleague has invented a method, by which, to begin with, an odor of delicious perfume is generated for women, and of an aromatic cocktail for men. The mortality from the old methods is indeed extremely small. 'Ether and chloroform rank very high among the most precious gifts of science to humanity; it is they which have made modern surgery possible.'"

AN ELECTRIC HIGHWAY—Under this heading the long-distance transmission line from Niagara to Syracuse, N. Y., is described by a writer in *The Inventive Age* (Washington, January), who says:

"A great highway—in some respects the most wonderful in the world—stretches through the heart of New York State, from Niagara to Syracuse. It is 160 miles in length and from 100 to 300 feet wide. It was extremely expensive to construct, and it is patroled night and day and kept constantly in repair. Yet the traveling public knows nothing of it. Never a wheel turns over its entire length, and no one can see or hear anything passing along it. Nevertheless, it is a great highway, for over it constantly passes an invisible current of electricity strong enough to do the work of almost 100,000 horses."

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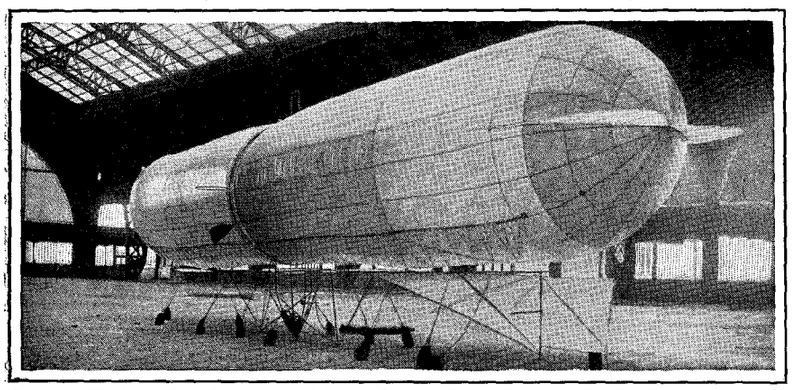
"The construction of this road was a marvel of engineering. A private right of way was purchased, 300 feet wide at Niagara and 100 feet at the end of the line. This will permit the building of similar lines and the sending of power to other points. Great steel towers rise every 550 feet, except at curves, where they are set closer. Each tower weighs 3,000 pounds, and is 55 feet high. Insulators, each weighing 75 pounds, are carried on the towers, and on these are supported huge aluminum cables which carry a current at a pressure of 60,000 volts. These cables have 19 strands each, and were tested for every sort of strain before they were put into use. A private telephone extends the length of the line, with stations for messages at each fifth tower; and the line is regularly patroled by a repair force. There are 11 substations along the way, where the power is stept down for industrial work. At each station, lightning-arresters—or dischargers of static electricity—are put in. All this is significant of the development of industries which will make Niagara the electric-power center of the world, until the Dark Continent is civilized and the Victoria Falls made available for general power distribution."

A NEW TYPE OF AIR-SHIP

A DIRIGIBLE balloon consisting of two cylindrical gas-bags placed end to end, with the propeller between them, is on exhibition in Paris and will shortly have an outdoor trial. Says the Paris correspondent of *The Automobile* (January 2):

"A dirigible balloon with its propeller in the center is an aeronautical novelty attracting the sky navigator to the Galerie des Machines, Paris. Baron Edmond de Marcay and a Dutch engineer, M. Kluytmans, have produced the new ship with a view to overcoming the lack of stability which is generally found in vessels of the *Patrie* and *Ville de Paris* types as soon as the propellers are put into operation. In the former class the double propellers revolving at 1,100 revolutions a minute are carried below the envelop in the center of the cage; in the latter class a single screw turning at 140 revolutions a minute is carried at the forward end of the cage. Removed some twenty or thirty feet from the center of the balloon, the defects of the two systems are apparent in a strong wind. To overcome the difficulty, compensators have been employed with considerable success, and naturally the lines of the ship influence in no small measure, but when all has been done rolling is the *bête noire* of the aerial sailor.

"The Marcay air-ship consists of a couple of long sausage-shaped bags placed end to end and having a connection through the center of their axis, in order to equalize the gas pressure in the two compartments. The propeller is attached to the frame in the center of the balloon, its two arms describing a circle of larger diameter than that of the balloon. The motor is carried on an under frame below the gas-bag, transmission being by means of a long belt. Experiments made in the Galerie des Machines, the balloon being guided along by a rope, were thoroughly satisfactory. As soon as possible outdoor experiments will be undertaken, for as the propellers have been arranged to improve stability it is only by trials in a wind that their real worth can be determined."



Courtesy of "The Automobile." Copyrighted by M. Branger, Paris.

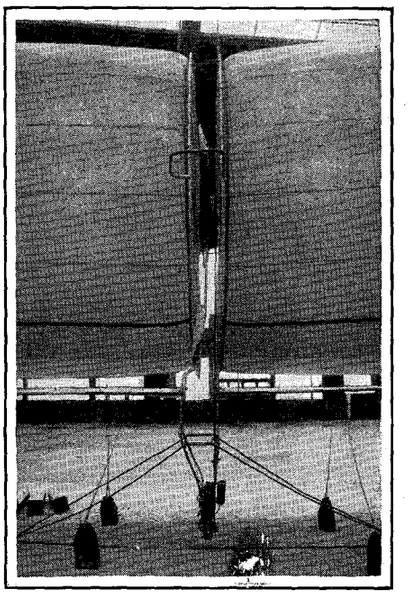
MARCAY DIVIDED AIR-SHIP WITH PROPELLER AMIDSHIPS BETWEEN THE TWO HALVES.

Shown at the Galerie des Machines, in Paris.

THE MENTALITY OF PHYSICIANS

A STUDY of professional types has recently occupied the Société de Sociologie, Paris. In a recent discussion of the medical man, it was decided that there seems to be no special outward type at present, except possibly for the country practitioner. Says *The Journal of the American Medical Association* (Chicago, December 14):

"The city physician is a man of the world, a society man, golf-player, etc., like other men of his standing. The mentality of physicians, however, offers a special type, as all bear the imprint of the same education. One of the speakers, M. de Tarde, drew a comparison between the mind of the physician and of the lawyer. The former, he said, believes in external and immutable truth, while the lawyer admits only an internal and variable truth, that is, psychologic truth. Accustomed to the relative truth of ideas, to controversial reasoning, the lawyer is ready to discuss and argue, while the physician, looking up to absolute and external truth, yields to facts, without discussing them. In commenting on this the *Semaine Médicale* states that submission to facts is not the essential feature of the scientific mind. The facts must be correlated, interpreted, and correct deductions drawn. And herein is the weak point of the medical education of the day. Untrained in philosophic reasoning, physicians are often inclined to confound more or less hasty generalizations with the facts themselves, and blindly accept both."



Courtesy of "The Automobile." Copyrighted by M. Branger, Paris.

CENTRAL PROPELLER AND MOTOR OF THE MARCAY AIR-SHIP.

The history of medicine, the writer thinks, offers more than one example of this dogmatism which builds a creed on some theoretical conception that may or may not be based on facts. Medical instruction is more and more strictly technical, which the writer considers a mistake, for even in professional matters the mentality of the physician suffers from lack of general culture. He goes on:

"The time is past when encyclopedic knowledge is attainable by any one individual, but even making allowances for the unavoidable necessities of specialization, it is still true what Liard wrote fifteen years ago: 'Specialization is becoming more and more of a necessity nowadays. It imposes the necessity for opening before the young mind—before the hour of the inevitable specialization—the whole broad field of science if the individual is to be anything more than a mere machine. The young mind realizes better the dignity of the special work which it takes up later if it comprehends the relation it bears to the whole and to general knowledge.'"

THE Pennsylvania Railroad is continuing its work of planting trees for its future supply of ties, notes *The Railway and Engineering Review*. It now has about 1,000 acres under cultivation, with some 2,250,000 trees growing, and seed planted for many more.

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD

"POPULAR RELIGION" OF TO-DAY

A PARALLEL between Christ's religion and popular religion is drawn by the editor of *The Christian Advocate* (New York), inspired, as he says, by "the signs of the times." Between the two, he finds "hardly a single point in common," and the contrast, he thinks, "should awaken every sincere Christian to a thorough self-examination by Gospel standards, and to determine to keep as far from evil as possible." As a general exhortation he writes:

"It would be wise for every member of a Christian church and every minister thereof to read carefully what Christ said of his religion, his disciples, the method of preparing for the future life, and the intimations that he gives of the judgment and eternal destiny, instead of occupying themselves entirely or chiefly with the contemplation of great church edifices, great organs, great colleges, great Sunday-school parades, great hospitals, great congregations, great movements, and great statistics."

Popular religion, as viewed by this writer, shows the following traits:

"It avoids all conflict with the world. Against the grosser immoralities, indeed, it lifts up its voice; for it is respectable to do so, and a large proportion of all connected with the church are above the more debasing forms of vice. But against pride-producing and extravagant fashions of the world it utters but a faint protest, or none.

"Popular religion seeks wealth with as much greediness, and grasps as eagerly after honor, and runs as swiftly after pleasure as does the world. A large majority of the professors of Christ's religion seek their most intimate associations in worldly society, and never think of lifting up their voices against the prevalent folly and dissipation. It is not in the least embarrassing for the most gay and thoughtless to be thrown into the company of Christians of the popular-religion type. Days and weeks may pass away and no mention be made of Christ or of anything he ever did or said, or which might lead persons to think of his religion.

"Popular religion has a very easy conscience, as is shown by many things. It makes a distinction between equally binding duties, performing those which are convenient, agreeable, and in harmony with the natural instincts or dispositions, and neglecting others which require self-denial. Thus there are many possest of large incomes who will pray and sing, but will not contribute their means to the support of the Gospel. Others are willing to contribute liberally but pay no attention to the spiritual work of the church. Popular religion enters upon doubtful enterprises if they promise large pecuniary rewards. It makes every form of excuse for neglect of duty. The merchant and mechanic declare themselves to be too busy. The contradiction between this and Christ's religion is exprest in the words 'Seek ye *first* the kingdom of God and his righteousness.'

"Popular religion professes timidity whenever called upon to take an active part in the services of the sanctuary, a timidity never shown in performing conspicuous, remunerative, or honorable public duties or functions of importance in the church. Popular religion disregards the most solemn vows. Every member of a Christian church has assumed the weightiest obligations. Every baptized person in the Methodist Church vows to 'renounce the devil and all his works, the vain pomp and glory of the world, with all covetous desires of the same.' When there is a controversy between them, popular religion places temporal interests before spiritual. It evinces this in the kind of preaching which it likes and in the mode of its life. It would rather attend public amusements, political meetings, social companies, or spend the evening in business calculations than to discharge the plainest Christian duty. Popular religion never agonizes before the Lord in secret, never sets apart hours for meditation, never reads the Bible for devotional or life-regulating purposes; seldom observes family prayer, never does anything really inconvenient for Christ's sake, and almost wholly eliminates the element of self-denial."

Alluding to the wide-spread habit of deploring the increase of non-churchgoers and of adults who will not connect themselves with any of the churches, the writer declares that "the contrast between Christ's religion and the popular religion, which all must observe, partly accounts for this fact, and it does so explain without justifying those who turn their backs upon the church which Christ established." "They are, however," it is concluded, "more consistent than profest Christians who, seeking to be popular both with the church and the world, are habitually inconsistent."

SUNDAY-SCHOOL TEACHING INDICTED

THE teaching in our Sunday-schools is in a thoroughly unsatisfactory state, according to a writer in *The Educational Review* (New York, January). "It is foolish for the ultraconservatives to deny," says Mr. Charles E. Witter, of St. Louis, "that not only is an increasingly large number of intelligent people deterred from teaching in the Sunday-schools and other departments of the orthodox churches, but that among the active and interested workers themselves there is a feeling of embarrassment amounting almost to conscious dishonesty in teaching to others views which they themselves have partly or wholly outgrown." The element of insincerity to be found in our Sunday-school teaching is the first indictment which he brings forward. We read:

"There can be no doubt that in many cases the teaching lags behind the real knowledge of the teacher. Many who have outgrown the crude and literal interpretations of earlier years, into whose minds religious truths have entered in new forms, are seemingly afraid to impart their real light to their young hearers. When they come before their classes in the Sunday-school they feel obligated to give them, not the fresh views that have proved more satisfactory to themselves, but the traditional statements of orthodoxy in which most of them were reared. This may be due to a strained sense of loyalty to their church organization or to a feeling that these older views are commonly reputed to be safer for children, but in any case the results can be only bad. They are bad first of all because of the insincerity in the teacher himself. No amount of juggling and trimming for the sake of expediency can justify one in teaching as true what he knows to be false, in teaching as fact what he knows to be myth. In the second place, such teaching is in the end ineffective. One can not teach satisfactorily and effectually that which he only half-heartedly believes himself. The secret of the wonderful power that the religious preaching and teaching of the fathers had over their hearers was just in this fact, that they believed with all the intensity of conviction every word which they uttered. The results are bad, moreover and chiefly, because of the great wrong that is thus done to the child's future. The time must inevitably come to those young people who read and think when they will awake to the superficiality and falsity of such teaching, and when that awakening comes the reaction will probably be more radical than it would have been had they been properly enlightened in the first place. The pendulum will swing so far that in rejecting these feeble and narrow views of spiritual truths they will in many cases be led to reject all versions of it. That this is a real danger can be seen by daily observation. It accounts for the absolute skepticism and agnosticism of many, and it also accounts for the fact often noted, that the most confirmed infidels frequently spring from just those narrow denominational schools and influences that refuse obstinately to open to the light of more modern and better conceptions of the religious life."

Mr. Witter next imputes actual deficiency of knowledge in the majority of instructors. He does not go so far as to recommend that they fit themselves to be able to teach "every new and crude speculation," but "there are some questions as to which the critical study and research of years, as well as the moral and literary intuition of men, have brought definite results." Such results he would have required as part of the requisite mental equipment of teachers. While, in his phrase, "there is substantial agreement among thinkers everywhere" on such subjects as verbal inspiration, the notion of "the marvelous and detailed fulfilment in the New

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tament of prophetic predictions in the Old," and the verity of many of the Old-Testament miracles, "we look in vain for any accompanying change in the teaching of the evangelical Sunday-schools." He continues:

"They seem scarcely to have felt the influence of these better views, or to be aware of their existence. One might well suppose that—even granting that there were no such general agreement as has been herein claimed, granting that all these were still perfectly open questions—one might well suppose that, in view of the mental difficulties most apparent as to accepting these literal statements, subjects of study could be chosen from the Bible setting forth the beautiful ethical and spiritual teaching and influence of Jesus and his followers, without involving the mythical element, or at any rate without making this the most prominent and essential element. But not so. The committee having in charge from time to time the outlining of topics for study in the International Sunday Lesson seem determined to keep just this mythical, this so-called supernatural element to the fore, doggedly ignoring all that even conservative Biblical scholarship has had to say. During the past year a glance at the Sunday-school journals shows the following among other topics: The angel stirring the pool at Bethesda; the miracle at Cana—turning of the water into wine; the healing of the impotent man; Lazarus raised from the dead; the miraculous feeding of the five thousand; and many others of a similar type. And in the treatment accorded to these studies by the critical and explanatory notes of the journals of the churches one looks in vain for any suggestion harmonizing them with the better knowledge of the present day. In the vast majority of cases, at least, they are taught in the blind, literal, traditional way, and youthful minds, that are at all curious and inquiring, are left to struggle with their doubts and difficulties as best they may, if indeed they are not warned that it is wrong for them to have doubts. In many cases the more persistent in groping for better standing-ground are told that they are passing through the initial stage of faith, the mental sophistry of youth, the experience common to all at the immature stage of knowledge."

The New York *Evening Post*, commenting editorially on this article, thinks the chief difficulty in the way of Mr. Witter's reform would be the child mind, which would not be able to distinguish between the credible and incredible stories in the Bible, and that talk about the "deeper spiritual truths" which underly the "superficial inaccuracies" of the Bible would be unintelligible.

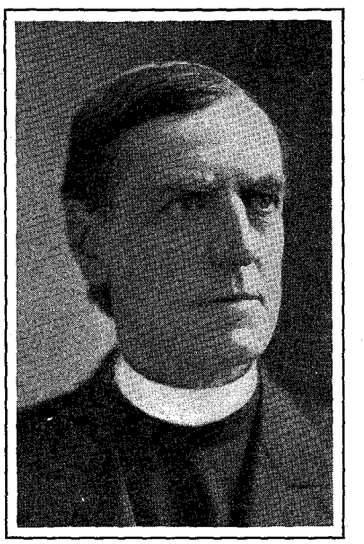
SUICIDE EPIDEMIC—The mania for suicide unusually prevalent at this time appears to a writer in *The Examiner* (New York) to be due to two causes: The lack of the fear of God and the undue value put upon worldly possessions. Of the first we read:

"This may be due to many causes—low moral state, greed for gain, and general indifference to religious things. The average man of the world has no regard for God or man. The law of God has no terrors for him. It is no longer 'a fearful thing for him to fall into the hands of a living God.' Life is a thing to be gratified, indulged in unrestraint, and not the highest gift of God. Many disregard the rights of their fellows, take undue advantage of them, and crush them. They grow to have a like disregard for God. They break with impunity the laws, and laugh at the courts and the prison-cell. They have no fear of anything here, and have become callous as to the hereafter. They live as the beast and die as if death ended all.

"The second reason is the undue value put upon worldly possessions. Those who spend their days in toiling for houses and lands, and bonds and stocks, come to think that these are the substantial things, and that when they are taken away all is gone. They have not learned that 'a man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things he possesseth.' They seem never to have heard of 'a certain rich man,' who pulled down his barns and built a bigger, that he might have where to bestow all his fruits and his goods, and that just as he had 'much goods laid up for many years,' that night his soul was required of him. The man with great wealth may in reality be very poor, while the man with little or nothing of this world's goods may be rich toward his fellow men and toward God. It is still true as in the days of Solomon, 'Better is a little with righteousness than great revenues without right.'"

"RELIGIOUS THERAPEUTICS" IN CHICAGO

BISHOP SAMUEL FALLOWS has organized in Chicago a movement in "religious therapeutics" parallel to that carried on at Emmanuel Church, Boston. His action has been in response to the appeal sent out by the pastors at Emmanuel Church, Drs. Elwood Worcester and Samuel McComb, to organize the work in other parts of the country and so relieve the strain of appeals from outside Boston. Bishop Fallows, writing in *The Episcopal Recorder* (Philadelphia), reports that the weekly health conferences held in Boston, after a period of fifteen months' trial, now number nearly a thousand attendants. Churches in several Eastern towns and cities have taken up the work, and the Protestant-Episcopal bishop of the Philippine Islands will put it into operation there. The work is not altogether a new departure for the Chicago divine. The subject has interested him for years, so he tells us, and he has been teaching these principles to the graduate physicians of the Chicago medical colleges. He investigated the Boston work, and decided to introduce it in his own church. At his first meeting he expected, he says, ten or twelve, but found a hundred and forty. He writes that "already some of the leading neurologists and physicians of Chicago are cooperating with us, and no case of bodily illness is accepted without a doctor's diagnosis."



BISHOP SAMUEL FALLOWS,

Who feels that a new era is at hand in the religious life of people, the evidence of which is the large interest taken in religious therapeutics.

Bishop Fallows calls his work "Christian psychology, or religious therapeutics." It is, he says, not a new cult or a new creed, but "a method of applying Christianity practically to the needs of those who are ill and suffering, and to bettering the daily lives of those who are well." Making what he calls some "sharp distinctions" between it and Christian Science, he writes:

"First, it is differentiated from Christian Science because it clearly recognizes the reality of the mind and the body and the inseparable relation existing between them while connected with the human organism.

"Second, it affirms most emphatically the value of anatomy, physiology, bacteriology, histology, and the like, in the progress of the race, as well as that of psychology. The practical bearing of psychology in the treatment of disease has come from the increasing light which psychology throws upon the human frame.

"Third, it maintains that there is a fundamental distinction between functional and organic diseases. The former includes the multiplied forms of mental and nervous disorders which are directly amenable to psychical and religious influences. The organic includes those in which important changes have taken place in the bodily structure. Among these maladies may be named cancer, malignant tumors, tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, smallpox, and the like. These troubles may require surgical aid and the application of material remedies. We, who are interested in this movement, would consider ourselves very unreasonable if we thought that by applying material remedies for material ills we were limiting the power of God in healing disease. These material means are the way he has chosen to accomplish his ends.

"Fifthly, Christian Psychology differs from Christian Science

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in not being, as I said before, a new religious cult. We feel that members of the Christian churches have often left the home fold because they could not get the practical and spiritual benefits that they thought they found in the cults departing from these organized communions. It is one of the dearest wishes of those who hope to see this movement spread widely, that people should find in their own particular church organizations these practical applications of Christianity to their daily needs, which they have sought elsewhere. One object of the movement is to establish and build up existing church organizations. It has been a matter of much sorrow to some of us that communicants should leave the faith of their fathers because they imagined it did not meet their wants. We welcome people of all denominations and creeds or of no creed. We recognize only their needs for our Christian assistance. We try to give them that help in the plane in which they are living, and to lift them to a higher spiritual plane when we can. But for church-members, whatever their denomination, we emphasize most strongly the necessity of loyalty to their own particular churches. If the movement widens, as it seems destined to do, we hope that 'Societies for Health and Happiness,' like Christian Endeavor or other organized expressions of church activity, adding to these activities, but not supplanting any, will be added to churches all over the country. It holds that the pastor of a church, a man so frequently of college and university training, one who is conversant with the deepest things of the soul, is the man best qualified to apply the great principles of mental and spiritual healing to the members of his flock and to work hand in hand with the physician in so doing."

As a final point he asserts that there is no taint of commercialism in this undertaking. Further:

"In this movement we are feeling as never before the power of prayer, personal and intercessory. Through the door which psychology has opened up to us, many write a background of wider experience, and are coming back to a most beautiful, trustful, Christian faith. The answered prayers of the last week, the hunger of people for this practical Christianity, make me feel that a new era is at hand, not only for the sick and suffering, but for all of us who, to use the motto of our Happy Club, which is working out these new ideas in every-day experience, are trying 'to meet life bravely, and to do our best to live in harmony with God's wishes.' It will be an era of healthier men and women, of better homes, of stronger churches, if we can thus teach our members the Christian self-control that means harmony and peace, through the possession of a sound mind in a sound body, and the indwelling of the Holy Ghost."

MISSIONARY AWAKENING AMONG LAYMEN

ONE of the most popular features of the Laymen's Missionary Movement is the "interdenominational committee" who act as solicitors for funds. Business men, who are the active workers in the movement, like the idea, it is said, of sending "a Baptist and a Methodist and an Episcopalian to a Presbyterian to urge the latter to do the right thing by his own Presbyterian Board." The men of the churches, observes the editor of *The Missionary Review of the World* (New York, February), "are evidently ready for an enterprise that is big enough to satisfy their conception of what a Christian man should undertake." Much is expected to crystallize at the Laymen's Missionary Conference to be held in Philadelphia (February 11–13). Such is the impression of Mr. William T. Ellis, whose investigations of the mission field in the East were freely reported in THE LITERARY DIGEST. Since his return Mr. Ellis has been devoting a good deal of time to the Laymen's Movement, addressing gatherings in the Middle West and South. "The unusual ready response made in these meetings," he says in *The Missionary Review of the World*, "has been due to the fact that large opportunities have been frankly held up to the men, without abating one jot of the hardships and heroism required to meet them." The increase of pledges for missionary funds has been especially noteworthy, as the following taken from Mr. Ellis's account will show:

"In Topeka, Kan., when one hundred representatives of the churches met at a banquet, it developed that the 8,000 church-members of Topeka last year gave $7,500 for foreign-missions. After the addresses by J. Campbell White and myself the company separated into denominational groups and then came together again in a general committee, and agreed to increase their gift to $25,000, if possible, within sixty days.

"The following week the men representing St. Joseph's 12,000 church-members undertook to raise their annual foreign mission gift of $12,000 to $50,000. A single church has already pledged $10,000 of that sum. St. Louis, with about 50,000 church-members, gave $56,000 last year to foreign missions, but a hard-headed committee, containing many of the most conservative business men, has undertaken to increase the sum to $250,000 this year. Nashville, with 25,000 church-members, gave last year $20,000 to missions, but a mass-meeting of about one thousand men ratified the proposition of a small committee to make this amount $60,000 in 1908. Knoxville, with 14,500 church-members, advanced from $7,500 to $30,000 as its goal for the year's foreign-mission gifts. Atlanta, whose 30,000 church-members had given $24,000 for the larger work, exprest itself as determined to make that $24,000 no less than $100,000. Charlotte, N. C., with 8,800 church-members, who have been giving $7,000 a year to foreign missions, now pledged itself to give $30,000.

"In addition to these American cities, there were extraordinary developments when Mr. White went into Canada, and met with the men of Toronto, London, Hamilton, and Brantford. Because of the peculiar nature of their field, and the fact that some of their boards are both home and foreign, the Canadians decided to include both causes in the laymen's advance. On this basis Toronto, with 60,000 church-members, rose from $141,000 to $500,000 in its pledge; Brantford went from $13,800 to $30,000; Hamilton from $37,500 to $75,000."

"PRESBYTERIANISM AND POLYGAMY"—The congruousness of Presbyterianism and polygamy is at present a topic of debate in the journals of the Southern branch of that denomination. It results from the action of the General Assembly, which, says the Rev. S. F. Tenney in *The Presbyterian Standard* (Charlotte, N. C.), practically allows "foreign missionaries to receive heathen converts into church-membership without requiring them to give up all their wives except one, as in the wisdom of our missionaries it may seem best to do so." This the writer asserts "must be construed as giving the countenance of our church, and encouragement to polygamy." In opposition to such an attitude he writes:

"The brethren who defend the Assembly's action lay great stress upon the unmerciful feature of requiring an African or Chinaman to abandon one or more wives and a number of children. Do these brethren not know the same unmerciful feature prevailed when Ezra by God's direction required men of Israel to abandon their heathen wives and children? Does not this same cruelty appear when the civil law sends a criminal to the penitentiary, or to the gallows, tearing him away from a helpless wife and dependent children? And yet we say this is right. Right is right, even if it does incidentally lead to much suffering of women and children. Why did our Savior inject so much cruelty in his religion when he laid down the rule that his disciple must deny himself, and take up his cross, and follow the Master—knowing in many instances this would involve the loss of earthly goods, and snap asunder the tenderest human ties, besides the endurance of most cruel sufferings of the body? Why did not he and his church lean to mercy's side and allow church-members to suppress their consciences, and outwardly to deny Christ before men while in their hearts they claimed to love him? It would be far better for the church to contribute funds to aid abandoned wives, and to provide orphans' homes for the care and training of their children, if need be, rather than receive a man into church-membership while he still cleaves to his plural wives. Is it not notorious that the Mormons justify themselves for not obeying the antipolygamy laws because of the cruelty involved in their putting away all their wives and children, except one wife and her children? And shall the Presbyterian Church in this enlightened age fall into the use of the same argument to justify herself in unduly multiplying converts?"

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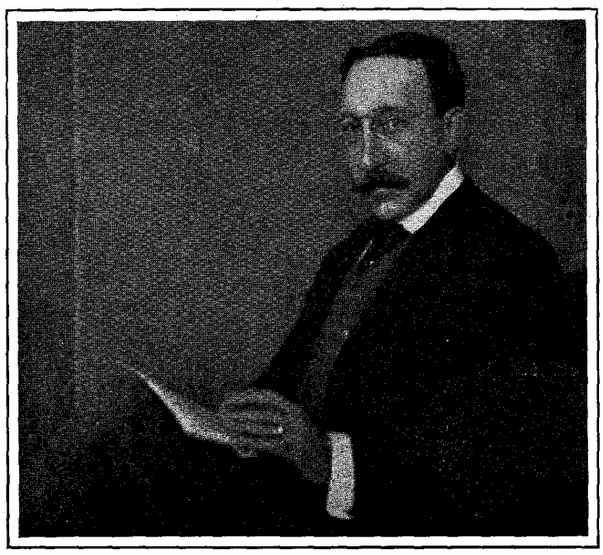
LETTERS AND ART

AMERICA'S NEGLECT OF HER OWN ART

HOW far America is from being a nation of picture-lovers may be inferred from the sketch Mr. Arthur Hoeber gives of the pictorial adornment of the average American house. Mr. Hoeber is a well-known art critic as well as painter, and, in setting forth, in *The Forum* (January–March), the poverty of our esthetic household environment, speaks a word for the neglected American artist, who stands ready to supply the lack that is so vividly revealed. Reference is here made, of course, to the houses of the well-to-do, not to those who can not afford to buy something worthy of their walls. Here is the American interior:

"Well, there are some old pictures handed down from father or grandfather, a few engravings utterly uninteresting, and many photographs of the family. Perhaps a department-store water-color or two, or an etching of the cheap variety, a photograph of a popular old master, or the interminable simpering Queen Louise coming down the stairs; and this last seems by some marvelous chance to have attracted a great majority of the public. But the pictures mean absolutely nothing, evince no taste or personality, and do not for a moment decorate the walls in the remotest manner. They just cover the wall-paper. In the dining-room there will be possibly a hunting-scene, or some gaudily colored engravings of fish, perhaps fruit. You may add, in the more literary homes, the old stand-by of 'Washington Irving and His Literary Friends,' or possibly Daniel Huntington's 'Martha Washington's Reception,' bad enough in monochrome, worse in color; and there the matter ends. Clever sketches by the younger Americans? You look for them in vain. Serious performances by men of reputation? You may not discover them, save, of course, at rare intervals. A stupid, impersonal room; and yet most of these people would like to boast of a decent chamber that their friends would admire. You ask them and they say, 'We can not afford to buy pictures, much as we would like to,' which, of course, is not true, since they spend money lavishly in other quite unnecessary directions. A woman with a dozen necklaces, if she gets a Christmas gift of several hundred dollars, will buy what? a picture? Never! She will buy another necklace, which she may wear thrice, possibly half-a-dozen times in a season, while the picture would be seen every day in the year and for the rest of her life! The reason is simple. She prefers the necklace to the painting; for, alas! to be attractively surrounded by good art is a necessity with very few."



Photographed by Stieglitz, New York.

ARTHUR HOEBER.

The worst American picture-buyer, says Mr. Hoeber, is the man who "prefers almost anything to the product of his own countrymen, and, curiously enough, the more questionable his way of amassing wealth the less is he inclined to patronize native art."

These people are bad enough, says Mr. Hoeber, "but a worse class is the really affluent American who, with well-filled purse, does go in for pictures, but prefers almost anything to the product of his own countrymen; and, curiously enough, the more questionable his way of amassing wealth, the less is he inclined to patronize native art." The writer makes a further observation:

"Possibly we should be thankful for this at least. Nowadays it has become the fashion for these collectors to gather in perhaps an Inness or two, maybe a Wyant, or a Homer Martin, but it is strongly suspected that these acquisitions are grudgingly secured and only because many of the other collectors have them. Frequently, too, these works are by no means representative of the charm and quality that made the men preeminent. Fashion has stept in again and decreed that Inness, Wyant, and Martin are to be taken seriously."

The writer recalls a statement of Dr. Kurtz, director of the Buffalo Academy of Fine Arts, that there "were at least over two hundred living painters in America whose work was of sufficient importance to entitle them to a permanent place in our museums, not to mention many more who had passed away; and he claimed, with a reasonable show of truth, that no other country could produce so large a number of names of such quality and such diversity of expression." What, then, is the matter? asks Mr. Hoeber. "How is it that there is only modest encouragement? Why do the collectors neglect their own countrymen?" He goes on:

"The answer is not easy, but there are several contributing causes. Most men are influenced by their friends or are imprest by the talk of prosperous dealers. The man who has made his fortune after years of terrific application to his office, and gradually finds himself advancing socially, associating with those already affluent, discovers after a while that there is something in an esthetic way that he has not hitherto had time to be interested in. His new friends have gorgeous houses, elaborately fitted up, and on the walls are paintings. Mostly they are canvases that he is unable to comprehend, that do not for a moment appeal to him, but which he is made soon to understand are costly and—in fashion. They seem to be the right thing to have, and to keep up with the mode he drops in at some shop on the avenue and asks a price or two, which at first stagger him. Later, perhaps, he attends an auction sale and he sees men frantically competing for these things at sums that are remarkable. It appeals to him to find that in the open market men will struggle so strenuously for these baubles, and he sees a fortune paid for a canvas that means little to him. It is the first step that counts.

"In earlier days the American collector cut his eye-teeth on a Bouguereau or a Ridgeway Knight. Those were men he comprehended. Pretty girl, bright colors. No brain-work necessary to take in such compositions. But he finds his friends look askance on these after a while. Those Barbizon men and the Impressionists are more in demand. Besides, they cost ever so much more; hence they must be good, for the money value is his only index.

"The use of a little gray matter in the affair, the looking seriously at nature and returning to the galleries to make comparisons, the reading of some good art books, the careful consideration of pictures as pictures, a personal knowledge of the artist and his work—these are things of which he rarely thinks. 'So-and-so has a Corot. I have six Corots!' That is the boast. 'This man Mauve is in every one's collection. I must have a Mauve,' even if it is but a name signed to an indifferent canvas, and so on down the line.

"The American picture can be bought for between one hundred and a thousand dollars. Ergo, the American picture can not be of much importance or it would cost more. And this foolish process of reasoning prevails to an extraordinary extent. If the unscrupulous dealer happens into the game at first, the would-be collector is hopelessly lost, and no one can say what the result may be."

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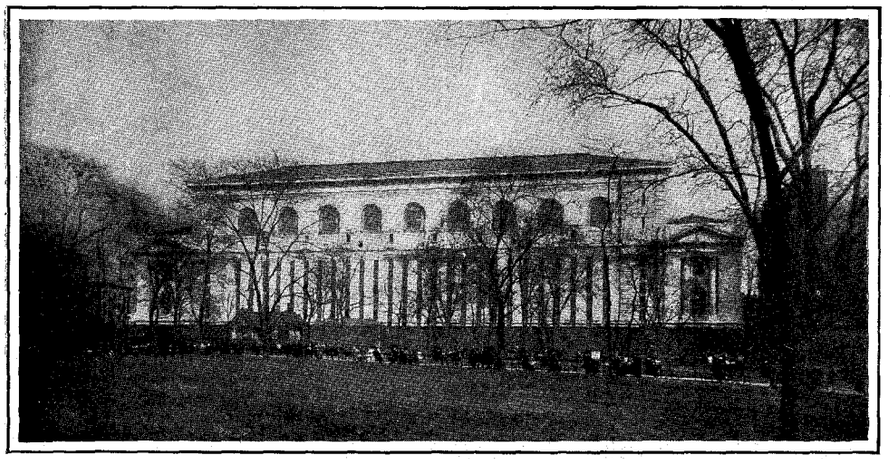
THE PROSE YEARS OF FRANCIS THOMPSON

THERE was a prose side to Francis Thompson, the English poet who died last November, that the world knows even less about, but should know more. So thinks Mr. C. Lewis Hind, who tells us of Thompson's work in prose after the practical extinction of the poetic flame which burned for the last time in his volume of 1897. From that year, says Mr. Hind (in *Harper's Weekly*, January 18), it amused Thompson to think that he earned his living by journalism. At least he earned pocket-money to satisfy his craving for drugs to which he was enslaved. He became a contributor to the London *Academy*, which Mr. Hind was editing, and continued this connection in a desultory way until the editorship changed in 1904. The following picture of him is given by the writer:



THE LIBRARY, FROM BRYANT PARK.
Rear wall, giving structural expression of the stack-room and main reading-room.

"In memory I see him one miserable November afternoon communing with the Seraphim and frolicking with the young-eyed Cherubim in Chancery Lane. The roads were ankle-deep in slush; a thin, icy rain was falling; the yellow fog enwrapt the pedestrians squelching down the lane; and, going through them in an arrow-path, I saw Francis Thompson, wet and mud-spattered. But he was not unhappy. What is a day of unpleasant weather to one who lives in eternity? His lips were moving, his head was raised, his eyes were humid with emotion, for above the roof of the Chancery Lane Safe Deposit Company, in the murk of the fog, he saw beatific visions. They were his reality, not the visible world.

"He was on his way to the office of *The Academy* with the manuscript of a book review, and on his damp back was slung the weather-worn satchel in which he would carry away volumes for the ensuing week. In the first year his monthly check was posted to him in the ordinary way, but that method did not work. When he was in funds he disdained to deliver his articles; so I adopted the plan of sending a weekly check to his landlady, and giving him, whenever he called, a small sum in cash. That suited him; it suited us. A Thompson article in *The Academy* gave distinction to the issue. What splendid prose it was! Reading the proofs, we would declaim passages aloud for the mere joy of giving utterance to his periods. He wrote a series of articles on 'Poets as Prose Writers' which must some day be recovered from the files; he wrote on anything. I discovered that his interest in battles and the strategy of great commanders was as keen as his concern with cricket. So the satchel was filled with military memoirs, and retired generals ensconced in the armchairs of service clubs—wondered. Here was a man who manipulated words as they manipulated men."

One of Thompson's tasks was the review of W. E. Henley's "Collected Poems." As a consequence Henley asked Mr. Hind to bring Thompson to see him. The visit turned out in this way:

"That was a memorable afternoon, but it did not begin auspiciously. Thompson was an hour late in calling for me at the office; when we reached Muswell Hill railway-station he complained of hunger, ate a vast quantity of cold beef, and then alarmed me by gliding into a trance. Suddenly he became rigid, his body swayed, and a film came over his eyes. It seemed as if his soul had flitted temporarily from his body. A minute or two passed; then he recovered, lighted his pipe, and did not refer to the episode. We arrived at Henley's house two hours late. The elder man was a little brusque at first, but Thompson, who was much excited at the prospect of meeting Henley, seated himself at his feet and they talked—such talk! Boswell should have been present. Flattery to the full and of the sincerest kind the elder poet received that afternoon, perfectly sincere flattery, for Thompson was a Huxley in intellectual rectitude.

"Once or twice in those seven years of our intercourse a flame of his old poetic fire blazed out, and once I was able to divert the flame into the pages of *The Academy*. When Cecil Rhodes died—that great dreamer and great man of action—I telegraphed to Thompson to hasten to the office. That was on a Monday. He appeared on the Tuesday. I asked him point blank if he would write an ode on Cecil Rhodes for the next issue of the paper, and without waiting for his refusal talked Rhodes to him for half an hour, roused his enthusiasm, and he departed with a half promise to deliver the ode on Thursday morning. Thursday came and nearly passed. I sent him three telegrams, but received no answer. It was necessary to go to press at eight o'clock. At half past six he arrived, and proceeded to extract from his pockets a dozen and more scraps of crumpled paper, each containing a fragment of the ode. I pieced them together, sent the blurred manuscript to the printers, gave him money for his dinner, and exacted a promise that he would return in an hour to read the proof. He returned dazed and incoherent, read the proof standing and swaying as he read, and murmured, 'It's all right.' It was all right. I am prouder of having published that ode than of anything else that *The Academy* ever contained."

NEW YORK'S NEW PUBLIC LIBRARY

SIR CASPAR PURDON CLARKE recently charged New York with having few or no satisfactory buildings. What the city had, he said, were pieces of scenery instead of buildings—that is, they were structures having elaborate façades of stone, and backs of plain brick. Front and back bore no correspondence to each other. Such a criticism can not be brought against the new public library building. The structural unity of its design is, according to a writer in the New York *Tribune* (January 12), one of the distinguishing features of the building conceived by Messrs. Carrère and Hastings. It has been "developed with jealous thought of the use to which it is to be put, and as you emerge from the interior you reflect chiefly upon its fitness, upon the way in which everything in it has seemed to fall harmoniously into its place." This fact in its most obvious aspect may be seen in the rear façade. Says the writer:

"The masonry beneath the arched windows of the main reading-room is pierced by twenty-six narrow striplike openings to admit light into the stack-room. The problem was excessively difficult, for it meant the breaking up of an immense wall surface where there were no horizontal divisions demanding structural definition, and the architects were between the two dangers of making their wall commonplace and dead or teasing it with meaningless decorative expedients. But they remembered the beauty of such close columnar effects as exist, for instance, in the Temple of Jupiter at

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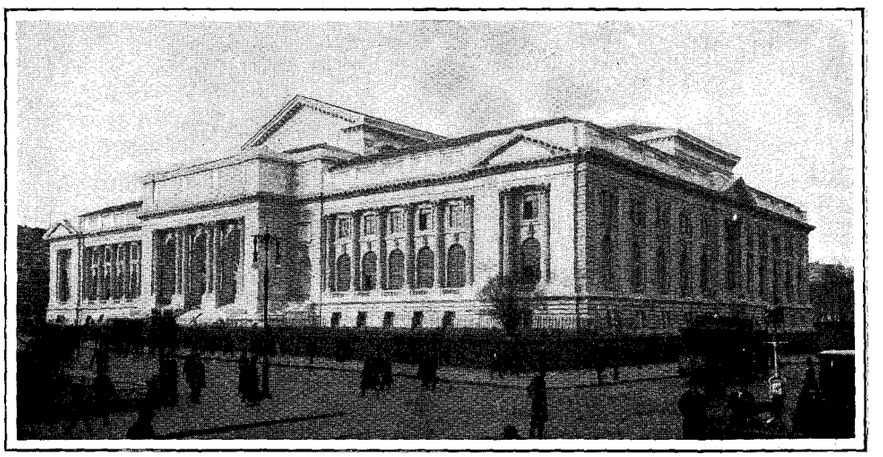
Baalbec, and, using again that restraint to which other parts of their building owe so much, they gave the outside of the stack-room wall an extraordinarily fresh and light character, a character as of really living architecture. In contrast to the other façades, this one may strike the uninitiated as a rather bare and perfunctory affair; but let the observer who wants to grasp the true strength of this building look carefully at the back of it, and, remembering that he is looking at the stack-room and the reading-room, ask himself if those rooms are not vividly proclaimed to him in just the arangement of wall and windows that he sees. Let him consider, too, how these features, the cornice and the roof above them, hold together with the corner pavilions, and how the latter satisfy his eye, bearing just the right relation to the walls they flank. It is odds that after going through this process and noting incidentally the effectiveness of the little reading-room balconies and the carved frieze below them he will conclude that this is not the ordinary neglected 'back' of a building, but a beautiful piece of architectural design."

In this rear façade the classical style is reduced to its simplest terms. More emphasis is laid upon the north and south walls, while the point is "raised, of course, to an even higher power." The writer continues:

"The strength of these principal façades resides in the simple, clear, and thoroughly monumental articulation of their parts. The central motive on the Fifth-avenue side, the triple-arched portico, has a just degree of projection, and the pillared section on either side, with its windows, is so designed as to line and mass that, while sufficiently subordinated to the portico aforesaid, it is also sufficiently emphasized for its own sake. So, likewise, the corners have their proper accents, but do not unduly assert themselves. The relation of the length of the building to its height is admirably fixt. It might be called a long, low edifice, but the attics, looming up above the outer roof line, provide the needed corrective. Outside the library, as within it, a grave dignity rules, ornament being sparsely used and the little of it that is introduced being handled with severe taste."

The main entrance, on Fifth Avenue, is "precisely in the key of an institution of learning." Inside one notes that "the architects have avoided the note of excessive spaciousness which would befit only some great exposition building or a place of public entertainment." "The vaulted entrance hall, from which the staircases rise on either side, is a work of massive simplicity, and it may be noted in passing that the stone piers, arches, and roof of this part of the building all illustrate the sincerest kind of construction. We have here not a scheme of steel with a thin facing of richer material, but a remarkable piece of pure masonry."

The building when completed will contain three hundred rooms, vaults, and halls. It will have a total floor space of 375,000 square feet, or nearly nine acres. The room of most interest to the general public—the main reading-room—is described in these words:

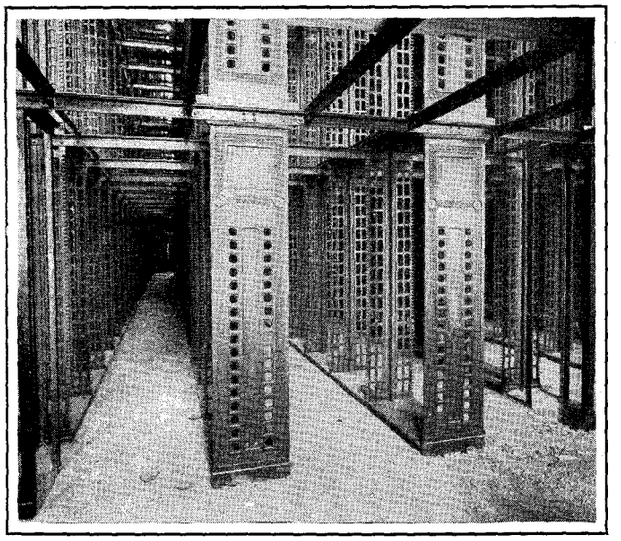


THE NEW PUBLIC LIBRARY, NEW YORK.
View from the northeast corner of Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street.

"The bare brick walls, now rising to a roof webbed with steel, are hardly more austere than they will be when they are sheathed, but to relieve their simplicity the room will have a magnificently decorated ceiling. The architects have had, too, a fortunate inspiration in the matter of the administrative machinery indispensable to this room. They have designed, to be thrown across its center, a sort of double screen, within which the reading-room attachés will perform their duties. Large enough to break and accent the long horizontal lines of the room, but not so large as to disturb the grand effect of the whole, this screen is one of the cleverest touches which Messrs. Carrère and Hastings have put to their credit. To have been clever, to have made one episode after another in their broad design fairly charming, is one of their chief merits. Experience has shown that it is an easy thing for an architect to make a public building dull and heavy, or, in the effort to avoid those defects, to be restless and even vulgar. In our new library the golden mean seems to have been reached. The interior is animated and airy, tho it is also majestic. There are certain minor features, like the screen mentioned above, the series of pillars in the central exhibition-room on the first floor, the pillared vestibule on the Forty-second-street side, and the staircase, likewise in that part of the building, which are especially to be singled out for the quality of grace that is in them. Yet in the long run, analysis comes back to the bold structural unity of the design."

The great room for the storage of books gives some idea of the present and contemplative resources of the library for the satisfaction of the inquiring student. We read:

"This stack-room is one of the striking features of the library, and constitutes a mechanical study of itself. It is 297 feet long, 78 feet wide, and is made up of seven floors, each seven feet six inches high. The construction of the stacks is of small steel beams and angles, into which floor slabs of marble one and one-half inches thick are to be fitted. In its present state the big stacks form a veritable wilderness of steel. The striking feature of the stack-room, however, is found in its great linear extent of shelves. There are sixty-three miles of them, and if thirty miles



VIEW OF BOOK-STACK, LOWER FLOOR.
There are sixty-three miles of linear extent to the shelves in the stack-room, and ninety miles of shelving throughout the building.

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is a fair distance for the average man to walk in a ten-hour day two days would be required to traverse their entire length, were they arranged so that each shelf could be followed from end to end. And this relates only to the shelving of the main stack-room. The shelving throughout the building if laid end on end would reach from New York to Philadelphia, or about ninety miles.

"Allowing ten volumes of average thickness to the foot, the new library's main stack-room has a capacity of 2,790,000 books. The capacity of the other shelves in the building is placed at 800,000 making the building's total capacity 3,500,000 books."

A SCOTCH HUMORIST ON THE AMERICAN SENSE OF HUMOR

HARRY LAUDER, the Scotchman who is called the highest-priced entertainer in the vaudeville world, recently tried his talent on New York audiences (at a fabulous salary), and has now gone home to tell the British how we took it. To understand the American sense of humor, he declares, three national traits must be borne in mind: First, the American's "superior" tone; second, our "strenuous life"; and third, our "love of stern reality and facts." Scotch humor was his specialty, and as his entertainment was new to his audience, he was naturally as critical of them as they were of him; hence his keenness in observing their traits, which he analyzes in the London *Daily Mail* (December 30). He says:

"To begin with, the New Yorker thinks himself—with his wife, his kith, and kin, every one in any way connected with him, in fact—'a verra supee-rior pairson.' And in many respects he, she, and they are. Remember that America is a country where every one, high and low, is taught to believe that he is as good as the best; a country of wonderful resources, as New York is a city of wonderful buildings; a country where the average standard of living is far higher than it is over here. The American, make no mistake, is a 'braw laddie' indeed.

"By the same token, he is quick, too—wonderfully quick—at picking up and digesting pawky wit and humor. Any one who has seen an American tell a funny story, 'till ye hold y'r sides wi' lauchter,' while all the time he keeps his face as solemn as a judge, and does not move a muscle, will know how capable he is of appreciating this kind of essentially Scottish drollery.

"But in spite of what I have just said, make no mistake. Because of the three traits I have enumerated, the American does not appreciate sarcasm or ridicule as we understand it. Why? (*a*) He is superior to it; (*b*) he has no time for it; (*c*) he wants reality and facts. In all his business relationships the American is stern, pointed, and complete. It is this spirit which dictates largely his appreciation of comedy and humor on the stage.

"This naturally brings up a second question, closely associated with the first: In what form must humor be exprest in order to please an American audience?

"From a very close and entirely personal observation of people that I came across in New York, both socially and among my audiences (who were, I found, by the by, made up to a remarkable degree of independent units), the American people do not want anything in the way of comedy—or, for that matter, anything else—unless it is human, pointed, true to life, and in the strictest sense real. Failing these things, they would rather go without."

If Americans "are grave and pointed in their business relations," Mr. Lauder continues, "they want the same humor on the stage as they permit off the stage—this humor that is, at bottom, human and real." He proceeds autobiographically:

"I consider my American success was due primarily to the fact that my audience thought they were going to get a stereotyped form of humorous musical entertainment, but that they received instead something they thought true, human, and real in the way of delineation, portrayal of character, temperament, and real life, which they had never seen before, but which, with their usual quickness, they readily assimilated.

"Consequently they were first surprized, then interested, their interest finally giving way to unrestrained delight. This quickness of the Americans to appreciate genuine humor is another national trait. If you have any message for them they seem, by some sixth sense, to discern its presence in advance, and before you know it they extract everything you have got—suck you dry, in fact. But they give no sign of their appreciation all the while, simply listening with all ears."

WHAT NEW YORK THINKS OF TETRAZZINI

THE first Tetrazzini night at the Manhattan, New York, was awaited with the question: Will the judgment of London be affirmed? The audience, it must be said, were not backward. "The applause was not merely enthusiastic," says the critic of the New York *Evening Post;* "it was frenzied, it was delirious." Not so were the critics. There is ample award of generous praise; but there are at the same time many qualifications. The singer's voice acquits itself most satisfactorily in the upper register. Says the writer in the New York *Sun:*

"Mme. Tetrazzini has a fresh, clear voice of pure soprano quality and of sufficient range, tho other rôles must perhaps disclose its furthest flights above the staff. The perfectly unworn condition and youthful timbre of this voice are its largest charms, and to these must be added a splendid richness in the upper range. Indeed, the best part of the voice as heard last evening was from the G above the staff to the high C. The B flat in 'Semper Libera' was a tone of which any singer might have been proud. The high D in the same number was by no means so good, and the high E flat which the singer took in ending the scene was a head tone of thin quality and refused to stay on the pitch."

Confirmation of this judgment, with an additional account of the region where she vocally falls short, is given by *The Times*. Thus:

"Her voice is not, in its present estate, one of even beauty and excellence throughout. Its finest and most telling tones are all in the upper part. Her lower ranges are pale and lacking both in power and in color. In passages of recitative it has little expressiveness. Her great strength and her power of moving her listeners lie in the extraordinary brilliancy, power, and flexibility of her singing when the music lies in the upper part of her voice in its warmth and vitality; and in this she is indeed a remarkable singer. Here there is richness, fulness, and flexibility of tone, a magnetic and vibrant quality that seizes the listener and moves the imagination. She has an excellent command of even and sustained tone here, and of legato. It is not, however, a command that reaches the highest point of the art of the 'bel canto.'"

Mr. Krehbiel, of the New York *Tribune*, practically agrees with the analyses of the other critics, and goes on to inquire, by a process of elimination, into the cause of the extraordinary demonstration made by the audience. Thus:

"Not the singer's voice. That has charms, but, save in the volume and brilliancy of its upper register, it is not specially noteworthy. Not the technical execution of the florid music alone, for the present generation, with memories of Patti, Nilsson, Gerster, and Sembrich in the rôle, could recall many more finished performances. Not the person of the singer, for that was in crass contradiction of the ideal picture of the heroine. The secret lay in the combination of beautiful singing, as such, and acting. Not acting in the sense of attitude, motion, and facial expression, altho these were all admirable, but in the dramatic feeling which imbued the singing—the dramatic color which shifted with kaleidoscopic swiftness from phrase to phrase, filling it with the blood of the play. The voice, weak and pallid in its lower register, had a dozen shades of meaning nevertheless, and as it soared upward it took on strength and glitter, tho it lost in emotional force as it gained in sensual charm.

"Judged by such standards as this public is familiar with, Mme. Tetrazzini's is neither a voice of consistent beauty throughout its several rather sharply marked registers, nor an organ consummately educated, in the strict sense. There were notes whose true pitch was reached only when the singer put added force into their utterances, and there was something left to be desired in her adjustment of vocal values when sustaining part of a dialog or trio. But in spite of these obvious flaws in her art, the newcomer made a genuinely fine impression, and it is likely that her star will be in the ascendant for some time to come."

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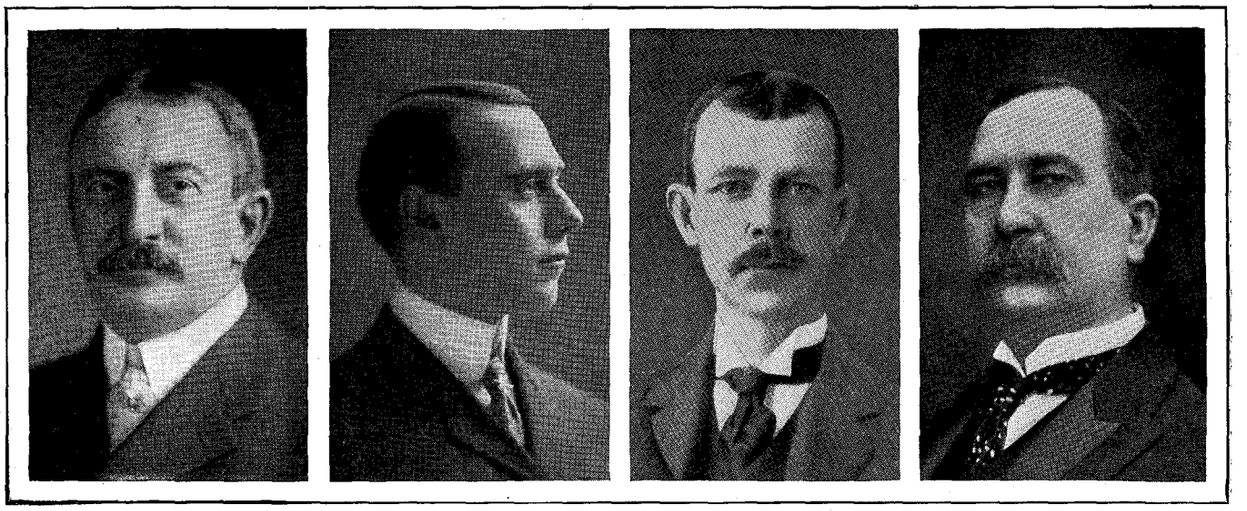

CHARLES A. CONANT. GEORGE GARR HENRY. ALEXANDER D. NOYES. BENJAMIN F. YOAKUM.

THE FINANCIAL OUTLOOK

SIGNS OF BETTER TIMES

Dun's Review in its annual number (Jan.) notes an improvement in general sentiment "in response to the brighter financial outlook, commercial loans being made with more freedom than at any recent date," while an easier money-market encourages belief that much projected business, heretofore held back for want of ability to raise funds, will now be undertaken. *The Review* says further:

"Many idle mills have resumed, altho in some cases only on part time or force, but the percentage of idle machinery has perceptibly decreased. Iron and steel production had fallen very low before the revival occurred, output of pig-iron at the beginning of this month being smaller than at any time in four years. Retail trade is quiet, but buyers are arriving in the primary markets, and a good jobbing distribution is expected during the next few weeks. Mercantile collections are more prompt. Railway earnings in December were 10.4 per cent. smaller than in the same month of 1906. Money in circulation on January 1 surpassed all records with a per-capita average of $35.48, and gross gold in vaults of the United States Treasury has risen above $960,000,000."

Mr. A. D. Noyes, in *The Forum* (Jan.), says he finds certain reasons for faith that nature in the present crisis to some extent "has offset the damage inflicted on our national prosperity by man." At the same time, it is "too early yet to indulge in prediction as to the probable length of the trade reaction," tho he cites "prophets, home and foreign," who are inclined to fix the period as "the next twelve months."

A recent article in The New York *Evening Post*, of which Mr. Noyes is financial editor, quoted Judge Gary of the Steel Corporation as saying "notable improvement should occur before the middle of the present year." Mr. Ingalls, president of the "Big Four" Railroad, thought the November election would limit the duration of the depression. Carroll D. Wright was inclined to believe the depression "will be of a temporary duration," and said further that "the recent financial flurry can not be dignified by the designation 'financial panic.'" Controller Ridgely, on the other hand, believed "we have a long period of readjustment and recuperation before us," but this period he said would not be as long as those which followed other panics. Stuyvesant Fish thought "We must again learn in the hard school of adversity the lesson of economy."

The Statist, of London (Dec. 28), was altogether optimistic. Its leading article contained the following:

"In the American market we are inclined to look for a large European investment. We do not ourselves look for a long-continued depression in the United States. On the contrary, we anticipate an early recovery. The railway companies, of course, will need to lay out very large sums to enable them when trade revives to carry all the traffic offered them. For this they will have to borrow on a very considerable scale, and therefore it will be in their interests to pay good dividends. But the large borrowing is likely to prevent any very early rise in prices."

The Financial Chronicle (Jan. 11), discussing the record for clearings in 1907, pointed out how the heavy decline for New York City had been largely caused by the decline in the volume of stock transaction. The aggregate commercial transactions for the year, however, "must have been at least as great as in the preceding similar interval." *The Chronicle* added:

"For the whole country the aggregate of clearings for 1907 reaches 144,889 million dollars, against 160,020 millions in the calendar year 1906, and 143,909 millions in 1905, but only 112,450 millions in 1904. The decrease in 1906 is 9½ per cent., but as compared with 1905 there is a gain of 0.7 per cent., and contrasted with 1904 the increase is over 28 per cent. At New York alone, and due, as remarked above, to the diminution in Stock-Exchange activity, the 1907 total not only records a decrease from 1906 of 16.7 per cent., but shows a decline from 1905 of over 7 per cent. Outside of New York, however, the late years' aggregate, despite losses at Boston and Philadelphia ascribable to the decreased stock speculation, marks a new record, having been 57,706 million dollars, against 55,344 millions in 1906, 50,087 millions in 1905, and only 43,800 millions in 1904."

The Chronicle, referring to the falling off in pig-iron production since October, remarked that, while as yet "there is no evidence of a return to normal conditions, it may be that the revival will come sooner than generally expected." A wise policy has thus far been pursued, so "when the revival does come, it will find the markets bare, and recovery consequently will be rapid."

OUR DEBT TO THE RAILROADS

Several writers have been calling attention to the great work done by the railroads, not only in enriching those who invested in them, but those whose properties along railroad lines have greatly advanced in value and productiveness in consequence of the building of the roads.

Benjamin F. Yoakum, chairman of the Executive Board of the Rock Island-Frisco lines, writing on this subject in *The Saturday Evening Post*, of Philadelphia (Jan. 11), first speaks of the almost universal notion among the people that "the railroads are their enemies, to whom they owe nothing but spite and retaliation," but declares his belief that it is not the people themselves who are so much at fault in these matters, as the politicians. He looks forward to the day when, through some form of organization, "the people and the railroads will get together without the agitator standing between them to create confusion and keep open the gap of misunderstanding and prejudice." Answering the question what a railroad does to entitle it to consideration from people along its lines, he says:

"To-day the State of Texas has, in round figures, 12,000 miles of railroad. It is in urgent need of fully double that amount to bring it up to normal for an agricultural State with so great an area not now enjoying railroad facilities.

"What would the railroads thus built do for real-estate values in Texas? We will figure the increase in values on an additional 6,000 miles on only those lands within ten miles of either side of the right of way; this would affect 12,800 acres to the mile. This gives a total of 76,800,000 acres for the 6,000 miles. Place the increase of value at only five dollars an acre and you have the astonishing total increase of three hundred and eighty-four million dollars."

Mr. Yoakum then calls attention to

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the good work which railroads do in developing immigration through executive departments maintained at their own expense. His own road during the last fiscal year spent in advertising alone for work of this kind "approximately half a million dollars," while the number of persons carried on its "regular bimonthly homeseeking excursion trains" amounted in the year to 105,695 persons, of whom 35,945 became settlers, taking with them 6,507 carloads of household goods.

Mr. Yoakum gives in detail an account of work done in the diffusion of knowledge as to soils and their adaptation to cultivation, as well as to the mineral resources of the country, and the industries which may most profitably be established at given points. Out of this work has grown very important services "in opening the way for highly profitable crops to supplant the coarser and less profitable ones." Certain lands in Texas, for example, were for years employed "for cattle-grazing and nothing else; a railroad came there, and truck-gardens drove out the steers."

Mr. Henry L. Higginson, the Boston financier and philanthropist, contributes to *The Atlantic Monthly* (Jan.) a paper entitled "Justice to the Corporations," in which he describes these organizations "as simply bodies of men and women who, busy with their own affairs, combine their capital, and entrust to directors and others the conduct of their business." Great material benefits have been wrought in every country which has used them, while every country which has not used them "has been left far behind in material progress." Taking up the subject of Continental railways and other corporations, he says:

"A group of men undertook to build a railroad into the wilderness where no house had ever stood, and settlers followed and built houses, barns, and presently towns and cities. These railroad pioneers struggled, failed, tried again, failed again, but in the mean time the homes for thousands were made. Crops, cattle, horses, schoolhouses, churches, and towns followed, and, lo, a new State was born! If, in the struggle for existence, bargains and railroad rates were made which seemed a hardship to the farmers, is it not fair to ask whence came these iron roadways and how the farmers would have marketed their crops without them? And, moreover, is there a railroad in our broad land that has not been forced to wade through dire distress, if not bankruptcy—bankruptcy often repeated several times?"

Among these railroads he mentions the Union Pacific, Boston & Lowell, and Northern Pacific, adding that "most of our great railroads and industrial enterprises have had the same history," and then proceeds to say:

"Of course these pioneers and their successors may have sometimes gone too far in their efforts and have made too hard bargains after they had achieved success. But does the farmer who paid $1.25 or $2.50 an acre for his land demand anything less than the utmost price for his crops or his cattle, and does he not sometimes sell his goods as first rate even when they are damaged? And to-day, when a newcomer asks for a price on the $1.25-per-acre farm, does the owner blush as he names $50 an acre for land which has already enriched him even to the extent of a handsome bank account? He has taken his risk, has worked very hard, has succeeded, has earned and fairly deserves his profit, and why should he hesitate to take all that he can get?"

"Interdependence of the farmer, the wage-earner, the manufacturer, the railroad manager, the miner, the banker, the school-teacher, the seamstress, the professional man is essential; is, in short, the essence of all society, all nations."

THE GROWTH OF WEALTH AND THE COST OF LIVING

Among the financial statistics compiled at the close of the year, few have been more interesting than those relating to savings-bank deposits, the world's output of gold, and the cost of living.

As to savings-bank deposits the New York *Evening Post* notes how from 1820 until 1907 the number of such depositors had grown from a little over eight thousand to over eight millions, while the average of deposits had grown from $132 to $412, and the aggregate of deposits from about $1,130,000 to over $3,299,000,000. Following is the compilation in totals at intervals of ten years:

	No. of Depositors.	Aggregate of Deposits.
1820	8,635	$1,138,576
1830	38,085	6,973,304
1840	78,701	14,051,520
1850	251,354	43,431,130
1860	693,870	149,277,504
1870	1,630,846	549,874,358
1880	2,335,582	819,106,973
1890	4,258,893	1,550,023,956
1900	6,107,083	2,389,719,954
1906	8,027,192	3,299,544,601

The statistics for the output of gold have been compiled mainly from two sources—a British Parliamentary report, and the reports of the United States Mint. They show the following totals for the years named:

	Gold Output.		Gold Output.
1849	$27,100,000	1892	$146,297,000
1850	44,450,000	1893	157,494,100
1851	67,600,000	1894	181,175,000
1852	135,150,000	1895	199,304,000
1860	93,415,000	1896	202,251,000
1861	112,270,000	1897	236,078,000
1863	100,575,000	1898	286,879,000
1864	94,980,000	1899	306,724,000
1865	101,270,000	1900	254,556,000
1872	87,845,000	1901	262,493,000
1873	96,200,000	1902	296,737,007
1876	103,700,000	1903	327,702,000
1877	113,947,000	1904	347,087,000
1887	105,775,000	1905	377,135,000
1889	123,489,000	1906	405,000,000
1891	130,650,000		

As to the distribution by countries of the production in recent years the following has been compiled:

	United States.	Africa.	Australasia.
1906	$96,101,000	$140,361,000	$82,770,000
1905	88,180,000	116,695,000	85,926,000
1904	80,723,000	85,519,000	87,767,000
1903	73,591,000	67,998,000	89,210,000
1902	80,000,000	39,023,000	81,578,000
1901	78,666,000	9,089,000	76,880,000
1900	79,171,000	8,672,000	73,498,000
1899	71,053,000	73,023,000	79,321,000
1898	64,463,000	80,128,000	64,860,000
1897	57,363,000	58,558,000	52,665,000
1896	53,088,000	45,185,000	44,407,000
1895	46,610,000	44,798,000	44,554,000
1894	39,500,000	41,760,000	40,271,000

Bradstreet's (Jan. 11) notes that commodity prices are still moving downward, "a very marked decline being shown as a result of the trade movements of December." Its own "approximate index number" on January 1st of this year was $8.2949, which, it says—

"shows a loss of 2.7 per cent. from December 1, 1907, of 5.1 per cent. from November 1, 1907, of 9.1 per cent. from March 1, 1907, the high-level point recorded, and of 6.9 per cent. from January 1, 1907. Compared with the low-level point of the past sixteen years—that touched on July 1, 1896—there is a gain still shown of 45.4 per cent. The general level of values on January 1, 1908, was, in fact, at the lowest point reached since July 1, 1906, and is only a fraction of 1 per cent. above the high level attained on February 1, 1900, nearly eight years ago."

Other tables are given by *Bradstreet's* the notable features of which show that—

"only two groups out of thirteen advanced, these being breadstuffs and building-materials, while two others, fruits and chemicals, remained unchanged, and nine out of thirteen moved lower. As to individual movements, it is found that textiles lead in the downward movement, raw cotton and cotton goods being prominent. Metals were all weaker, and hides and leather vied with this group in the proportion of loss shown. Live stock, naval stores, and miscellaneous products also showed declines."

These tables further show that "forty products declined, while only twenty-one advanced, during December, or at the rate of two declining to one advancing, while forty-five remained unchanged," and that "fifty-seven articles are lower than a year ago, while only thirty-one are higher and eighteen are unchanged."

Another interesting table, printed by the *Evening Post*, relates to the growth of this country in area, population, and the Federal interest-bearing debt:

	Area, Sq. Miles.	Population.	Int.-bearing Debt.
1800	827,844	5,308,483	$82,976,294
1830	2,059,043	12,866,020	48,565,406
1840	2,059,043	17,069,453	3,573,344
1860	3,026,789	31,443,321	64,640,838
1870	3,026,789	38,558,371	2,046,455,722
1880	3,026,789	50,155,783	1,723,993,100
1890	3,026,789	62,622,250	725,313,110
1900	3,026,789	76,303,387	1,023,478,860
1907	3,026,789	86,666,000	894,834,280

HINTS FOR INVESTORS

Charles A. Conant, in *The Atlantic Monthly* for January, writing of the amount of negotiable securities now existing in the world—that is, stocks and bonds—quotes a French writer's estimates of them "as the larger part of public wealth." He gives some figures compiled by M. Neymarck, another French economist, of the outstanding securities of Europe and the United States in 1900, as follows:

Country.	Par Value of Securities Owned.	Amount per Capita.
Great Britain	$26,400,000,000	$616.97
France	19,500,000,000	500.94
Germany	10,000,000,000	177.41
Russia	5,400,000,000	41.86
Austria-Hungary	4,400,000,000	96.90
Netherlands	2,200,000,000	405.08
Italy	2,300,000,000	69.24
Belgium	1,400,000,000	200.42
Spain	1,300,000,000	69.82
Switzerland	1,100,000,000	331.78
Denmark	600,000,000	226.69
Sweden and others	400,000,000	7.76
Total Europe	$75,000,000,000	$172.70
United States (1905)	34,514,351,382	414.54
Japan (1905)	1,563,412,951	29.70
Aggregate	$111,077,764,333	$196.17

He says we have no absolutely accurate data as to the ratio of the securities of each country to the aggregate wealth of that country, but an intelligent estimate, made by Michael G. Mulhall for 1896, put the total wealth of Europe in all forms

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of property at $342,528,602,500, or $755 per capita. Mr. Conant adds:

"The richest country is naturally the United Kingdom, with a valuation of $57,453,899,000, which affords an average per capita of $1,455. France is credited with wealth to the amount of $47,156,385,000, which amounts to $1,228 per capita, while Germany shows a valuation of $39,185,058,000, or $751 per capita. The Empire of Russia shows a large total,—$31,267,262,500; but when it is distributed over her great population of 105,800,000, it yields an average per capita of only $296."

Mr. Conant adds that from statistics available "it appears that about 45 per cent. of the wealth of Great Britain is in the form of securities, about 40 per cent. of the wealth of France, and only about 25 per cent. of the wealth of Germany. The ratio in the United States is about 23 per cent."

George Carey writes in *The Outlook* of the difference between bonds and stocks, a bond being "a written promise to repay a loan at a given date," with interest during the life of the loan, the owners of bonds being empowered to sell the property provided the interest and principal are not paid as provided for. Stock, however, represents ownership of the property and of its earnings after the running expenses and the interest on bonds and other debts have been paid, and in case of a foreclosure to satisfy bondholders, ownership in what may remain. Mr. Carey continues:

"Stocks of some companies may be more desirable investments than bonds of others. The stocks of certain great railway and industrial corporations, for instance, have, through years of careful management and consequent steady payment of dividends, come to be regarded as being practically equivalent to fixt obligations. Bond investments promise a known and steady income, with relatively little likelihood of advance in market price beyond a certain point.

"Stocks stand for variability in the matter of both principal and income. They may reap enormous profits, or they may return their owner nothing. In the selection of stocks as an investment, therefore, the purchaser should be even more careful than in the case of bonds. He should satisfy himself by diligent study and inquiry that the company whose stock he is about to buy has earned for a long period and is now earning a surplus far in excess of all expenses of operation, and interest on bonded indebtedness."

George Garr Henry, writing in *System* (January) of railroad equipment bonds as possessing "a high degree of safety," says:

"Equipment bonds at the present writing can be obtained to yield from 4¾ per cent. to 6½ per cent. in accordance with the financial strength and credit of the issuing railroad and the margin of security of the equipment itself. The net return on the equipment bonds of a given railroad is usually from ½ per cent. to ¾ per cent. greater than on the first-mortgage bonds of the same railroad. This is owing to the fact that while banks and scientific investors have bought equipment bonds for many years, the general public is not sufficiently familiar with the inherent strength of these issues to create much of

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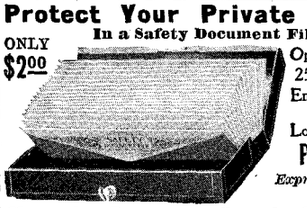

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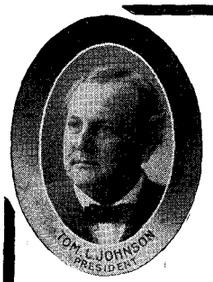

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a demand for them. It is evident therefore that a good rate of income can be obtained from equipment bonds."

Charles E. Scovil in *Success Magazine* (Feb.) insists that "The first principle of all sound investment must ever be the quality of the security afforded the capital; the interest, or income yield, being of secondary consideration," and then at the conclusion of his article says:

"I want to impress upon the readers of this magazine the extreme care that should always be exercised in purchasing the stocks of companies not financed by reputable investment bankers. Such stocks are being offered to-day at par, $100 a share, and upon which dividends of from 6 to 7 per cent. are promised. In most cases these stocks have no market whatsoever, and banks will not accept them as collateral for loans Moreover, there are 7 per cent. preferred industrial stocks actively traded in upon the New York Stock Exchange, and upon which banks will make loans, that are selling from about $80 to $90 a share, representing an income yield of from about 8 to 9 per cent."

An anonymous writer in *The World's Work* for January, commenting upon the number of small purchasers who, soon after the October panic, "became the mainstay of the tottering Wall-street market, says that one estimate of the buying in five stocks—Pennsylvania, New York Central, Union Pacific, Northern Pacific, and Steel preferred—is that it amounted to more than $75,000,000. A friend of the writer invested about five thousand dollars as follows:

Shares.	Stock.	Price.	Cost.	Dividends.
20	Pennsylvania	56	$1,120	$70
10	Nor. Pacific.	103	1,030	70
10	Sou. Pacific, pfd.	105	1,050	70
10	U. S. Steel, pfd	82	820	70
10	Gen. Electric	102	1,020	80
	Totals		$5,040	$360

Below will be found a list of preferred railroad stocks and industrial stocks that were recommended early in January by a prominent New York banking-house, with figures showing prices at that time, dividend rates, and approximate yields:

PREFERRED RAILROAD STOCKS

Yield about.	Title.	Price about.	Dividend Rate.
5.81	Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé	86	5%
4.90	Baltimore & Ohio	77	4%
5.19	Chic., Milwaukee & St. Paul	135	7%
7.41	Kansas City So., preferred	54	4%
6.42	Southern Pacific	109	7%
7.02	Mo., Kansas & Texas	57	4%
5.00	Union Pacific	80	4%

INDUSTRIAL STOCKS

8.34	American Car and Fdy., pfd.	84	7%
7.87	American Locomotive Co.	89	7%
8.57	American Tobacco Co.	70	6%
7.78	American Smelting & Refining	90	7%
6.25	Amer. Smelt. Secur., Series B	80	5%
8.52	American Woolen, pfd.	82	7%
9.20	Central Leather Co	76	7%
10.00	International Steam Pump.	60	6%
10.00	Pressed Steel Car, pfd.	70	7%
7.87	U. S. Steel Corporation.	89	7%

Readers, however, must bear in mind that rates of dividend might be affected in future, should business conditions materially change for the worse. These investment properties, it is to be noted, are all stocks; none of them are bonds.

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CURRENT POETRY

Winter Magic.

BY KATE STEVENS LOOMIS.

Stark and naked the bleak trees stood
'Till winter's magic bewitched the wood.
Then fantom-like from the white below
Rose shafts of shadow, half-clad in snow,
Losing themselves in a mazy bower
Of branchèd frost and soft snow shower.
And through this wood of dazzling white
Wove shimmering threads of silvery light,
O'ershot with the fire of the slant sunbeam,
With crystal glimmer, and diamond gleam;
While prismic colors flashed hither and yon
And like wills-o'-the-wisp from the sight were gone;
And shadows soft through the trees were laced
And over the ground in a network traced.
A faery wood by magic made
Of vibrant light and subtle shade.
—*The Metropolitan Magazine* (February).

Beati Mortui.

BY LOUISE IMOGEN GUINEY.

Blessed the dead in spirit, our brave dead
Not passed, but perfected:
Who tower up to mystical full bloom
From self, as from a known alchemic tomb;
Who out of wrong
Run forth with laughter and a broken throng;
Who win from pain their strange and flawless grant
Of peace anticipant;
Who late wore cerements of sin, but now,
Unbound from foot to brow,
Gleam in and out of cities, beautiful
As sun-born colors of a forest pool,
When Autumn sees
The walnuts splash in, from her thinning trees. . . . .

If thus to have trod and left the wormy way
Leaves men so wondrous gay,
So stript and free and potently alive,
Who would not his infirmity survive,
And bathe in victory, and come to be
As blithe as ye,

BANISHED

Coffee Finally Had to Go.

The way some persons cling to coffee even after they know it is doing them harm is a puzzler. But it is an easy matter to give it up for good, when Postum Food Coffee is properly made and used instead.

A girl writes: "Mother had been suffering with nervous headaches for seven weary years, but kept drinking coffee.

"One day I asked her why she did not give up coffee as a cousin of mine had done who had taken to Postum. But Mother was such a slave to coffee she thought it would be terrible to give it up.

"Finally, one day, she made the change to Postum, and quickly her headaches disappeared. One morning while she was drinking Postum so freely and with such relish, I asked for a taste.

"That started me on Postum and I now drink it more freely than I did coffee, which never comes into our house now.

"A girl friend of mine, one day saw me drinking Postum and asked if it was coffee. I told her it was Postum and gave her some to take home, but forgot to tell her how to make it.

"The next day she said she did not see how I could drink Postum. I found she had made it like ordinary coffee. So I told her how to make it right and gave her a cupful I made, after boiling it fifteen minutes. She said she never drank any coffee that tasted as good, and now coffee is banished from both our homes." Name given by Postum Co., Battle Creek, Mich.

Read the little book. "The Road to Wellville" in pkgs. "There's a Reason."

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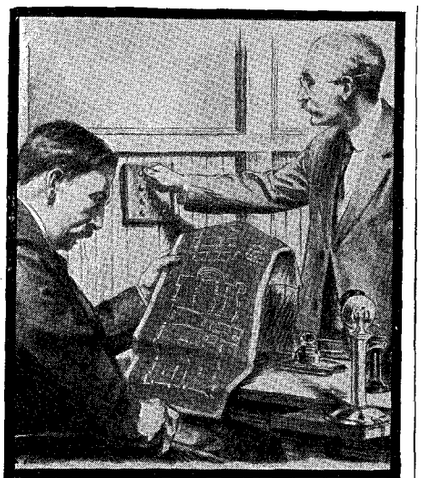

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Preparation for all colleges or for business. A boys' boarding school of best type. Lower school for young boys in separate building. Winter term opens Jan. 6th, 1908. For catalogue address J. R. CAMPBELL.

Saints of the ended wars? Ah, greeting give;
Turn not, too fugitive;
But hastening toward us, hallow the foul street,
And sit with us at meat;
And of your courtesy, on us unwise
Fix oft those purer eyes,
Till in ourselves, who love them, dwell
The same sure light ineffable;
Till they who walk with us in after-years,
Forgetting time and tears
(As we with you), shall sing all day instead,
"How blessed are the dead!"

—*The Atlantic Monthly* (January).

At Fourscore.

BY CHARLES BUXTON GOING.

His body, warped and brown and thin,
Is like some quaint old violin,

Played till it bears the lasting trace
Of the dead player's hand and face—

Played to old airs of love and pain
Till it was broken with the strain.

But even yet, when some one brings
A master touch, the poor worn strings

Wake, from his heart of bygone years,
A music that is blind with tears.

—*Everybody's Magazine* (January).

PERSONAL

Richard Mansfield's Personality.—A writer in the *North American Review* attributes Richard Mansfield's great success, not to his sympathetic interpretation or to his wonderful character delineation, remarkable as these powers were, but to his own masterful personality. While he in no measure belittles the ascendency which Mr. Mansfield gained through his scope of appreciation and his mastery of technique, he goes on to say that the mere appearance of Richard Mansfield on the stage brought to his audiences a wider understanding of the possibilities of life. In discussing this, he says:

For this reason Mr. Mansfield was, to those who knew him privately, even more impressive off the stage than on. That elemental human power which was his, showed all the more emphatic when he was disencumbered of the trappings and the suits of stage disguises. It has seemed to me, therefore, that many people who felt the impress of his personality only through the medium of his art may wish to know how he appeared in private life. My impressions of him are confined to the last year of his career. Before that I had never met him; but during the summer of 1906 he asked me to settle near his country-seat, in order that I might set to work toward the fulfilment of certain purposes he had in mind for me. For over two months I saw him nearly every day; and one time and another, at different hours of the day and evening, he talked with me in almost every vein. . . . . .

Since he neither argued nor explained, there was an air of finality about his statements. He emphatically told you where he stood: what were you going to do about it? He didn't open subjects: he closed them. He was always swooping to conclusions; and tho you still had something in your mind to say, you were deterred by the emphasis of his unspoken "That will do." There was nothing petty in

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his self-assertion. You felt behind it the full power of his vast and sweeping mind. He was so sure that he was right that he often convinced you by contagion; and you found yourself agreeing with him even when you could not understand the reason why.

His energy of self-assertion gave him an air of dominance which was perhaps his most obvious personal quality. His close professional associates always spoke of him as "The Chief": and I remember how once, when I was taking leave of some other friends in order to keep an appointment with Mr. Mansfield, I unconsciously recalled and spoke the line from "Beau Brummel," "I have a very pressing engagement with his Majesty." Thereafter I often thought of Mr. Mansfield as "His Majesty." In all his ways he was imperial. He commanded always; he never took commands: and the habit of years had given him a certain magnificence of manner, as of one speaking from a throne. No matter how many other people were present, nor how interesting they were as individuals, you were always aware of Mr. Mansfield as the central and commanding figure of the group. He seemed somehow more alive than other people; he was more ardent and intense; he hurled himself at you with a more compelling vigor. You could not get away from the keen impression of his presence. When he presided at the dinner-table, you found it difficult to look long at anybody else; your eyes would constantly revert to him. I can see him now dancing a Virginia reel in the great hall of the Grange, with such an eagerness of young enjoyment that he lured your eyes away from all the pretty girls who were fluttering around the room. Because of the imperial sweep and sway of his manner, he gave you constantly the impression of being taller and heavier than he actually was. He was, of course, very stockily built, deep-chested and strong-limbed; but he was a short man, and without grandeur of mere physical appearance. The same body, carried lax, would not have caught your eye; the same face, struck expressionless, would not have interested you. And yet he sustained with such conviction the imperial mood that many men more grandly built in body and more beautiful in face looked unimportant when they stood beside him. Mr. Mansfield somehow made you bow to the superbness of his personality. His unconquerable self-assertion, his habit of dominance, his imperial quality (call it by whatever name you will) was his greatest asset as an actor. When he came upon the stage, he ruled the audience. He exuded power and compelled submissive admiration. There he was before you, flinging at you all the might and ardor of his nature. What were you going to do about it?

REVIVED AT LAST
Emaciated Woman Restored By Proper Food.

The amount of harm done from eating food which lacks the nourishing elements or is in such form that the system can't absorb it, is much greater than many persons even suspect.

The harm can't be corrected by drugs either. There must be a complete change in the dietary—the cause of the trouble must be removed.

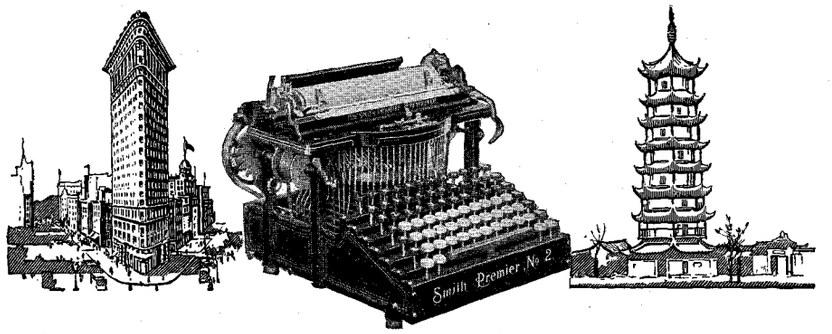
"I have been a constant sufferer from stomach trouble, constipation and neuralgia, for the past 14 years," writes a Mich. lady, "and the past year became tired of life, of everybody and everything.

"The best doctors and several weeks at a Sanitarium afforded me only temporary relief. Finally an attack of the grippe caused me to give up hope of ever being well again. I was growing weaker and more emaciated every day.

"At last, a doctor advised me to try some predigested food, as nothing would stay on my stomach. My husband sent for some Grape-Nuts, of which I ate a little with milk, and then awaited the usual results.

"My stomach did not reject this food, and from that time on for several weeks, I lived on Grape-Nuts and milk. I felt no pain whatever in my stomach, my health gradually came back and in five weeks I gained 25 pounds. I derived more strength from Grape-Nuts than I ever did from a meat and potato diet." "There's a Reason."

Name given by Postum Co., Battle Creek, Mich. Read "The Road to Wellville," in pkgs.



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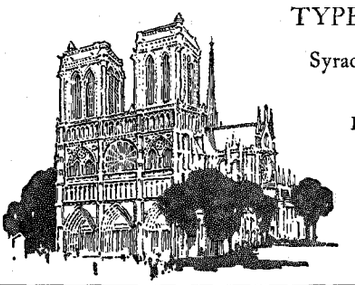

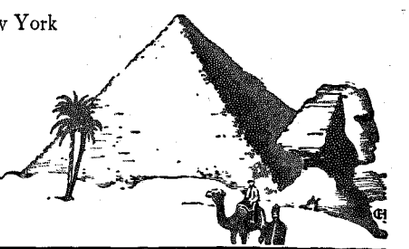

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The "1900" Electric Self-Working Washer does the washing—and *wrings the clothes*. Any electric light current furnishes the power.

You connect the washer just as you put an electric globe into its socket. Then to start the washer you turn on the electricity.

The water, and soap, and *the motion of the tub* do the washing. And your clothes are washed quicker and easier, and more thoroughly and economically than you have ever had washing done before. This washer saves more than enough in a few months to pay its own cost, and then—*it keeps right on saving*.

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Your servants will not have to dread wash-day drudgery. There won't be any discussion over the size of the washing.

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Do not take our word for this.

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We will ship one of these "1900" Electric Self-Working Washers to any responsible party and *prepay the freight*.

Take this washer and use it for four weeks.

Wash laces with it. Wash your heaviest blankets and quilts. Wash rugs.

Then—if you are not convinced that the washer is all we say—don't keep it.

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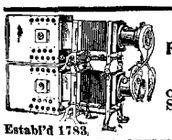

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MORE OR LESS PUNGENT

How Did He?—A man carrying a looking-glass said to a news-boy, "Come here and look into this glass and you will see a donkey."

"How did you find that out?" retorted the boy.—*Tit-Bits.*

Tedious.—TOWNE—"Tiresome talker, isn't he?"

BROWNE—"Yes; reminds me of a woman sharpening a pencil."

TOWNE—"Sets your nerves on edge, eh?"

BROWNE—"Oh, yes, but I mean it takes him so long to get to the point."—*Philadelphia Press.*

Mountain Brand.—"Praise to glory, the South is going dry!" shouted the temperance advocate, waving his arms. "It will bring sunshine into Southern homes."

"Yes, and moonshine, brother," spoke up the little man who had been sitting in the end row.—*Puck.*

All There but the Tail.—Drest in the latest and most approved motor-cycling costume, with goggles all complete, the motor-cyclist gayly toot-tooted his way by Regents Park toward the Zoo. Suddenly he slackened, dismounted, and said to a small, grubby urchin:

"I say, my boy, am I right for the Zoo?"

The boy gasped at so strange a sight, and thought it must be some new animal for the gardens.

"You may be all right if they have a spare cage," he said, when he could find his tongue, "but you'd ha' stood a far better chance if you'd 'ad a tail!"—*Answers.*

A Modern Miracle.—CHARITABLE MAN (to former blind beggar)—"What! have you recovered your sight?"

BEGGAR—"Well, you see it's this way. I've lost my dog; and as I can not longer be blind, I have become a deaf-mute."—*Puck.*

Nobody Home.—AGENT—"Is the head of the house in, sonny?"

BOY—"No, sir, there's nobody home but me father."—*Denver Catholic Register.*

Doing His Best.—PATIENT—"What would you think of a warm climate for me?"

DOCTOR—"That's just what I'm trying to save you from."—*Denver Catholic Register.*

Odd Too!—"Say, old chap, lend me a dollar, will you?"

After complying, the lender suddenly has his memory refreshed.

"Look here!" he declared to the borrower, the next moment, "come to think of it I lent you a dollar over a year ago and you never returned it!"

"That was odd."

"What was odd?"

"Dollar No. 1."

"What of it?"

"Well, this is dollar No. 2; that makes it even; savvy?"—*Illustrated Sunday Magazine.*

One of Them.—BOOK AGENT—"Good-morning! Are you the lady of the house?"

BRIDGET—"I'm wan o' thim."—*Life.*

100% HATCHES 100% Every Fertile Egg

The **Globe Incubator** does this all the time—has done it for 16 years—and hatches strong, healthy chicks—chicks that **live** and **grow.**

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Greider's Fine Poultry Catalogue.

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The Only Way Out.—MRS. CASEY—"I don't know what we'll put in little Patsy's stockin', Mike. He writ a letther t' Santy Claus axin' f'r a rale auttymobile, no liss."

MR. CASEY—"Shure, we'll drop a few drops iv gassyline in it an' I'll bet he'll be thankful he didn't git th' rist iv th' machine."—*Puck.*

Both Objectionable.—TOWNE—"They are two fellows I hate to play poker with, Meanley and Kraft."

BROWNE—"O! I know Meanley's always a hard loser, but what's wrong with Kraft?"

TOWNE—"He's always an easy winner."—*Philadelphia Press.*

Sentence Suspended.—"You are charged with having registered illegally."

"Well, your Honor," responded the prisoner, "perhaps I did, but they were trying so hard to beat you that I just got desperate."—*Philadelphia Ledger.*

Mutually Pleased.—"Jane," floated downward a voice, "if that is Mrs. Soandso, I'm not in."

"It is Mrs. Soandso," floated upward a voice, "and she's glad to hear it."—*Washington Herald.*

CURRENT EVENTS

Foreign.

January 10.—The Socialists make a demonstration in Berlin in favor of general suffrage, but are dispersed by the police, with many arrests.

The North-German-Lloyd and Hamburg-American lines enter into a four-year agreement.

January 11.—Mulai Hafig is proclaimed Sultan at Fez and a holy war declared.

January 12.—The American battle-ship fleet arrives at Rio de Janeiro from Port of Spain.

Seventy thousand Socialists riot through Berlin to show their disapproval of the Government's refusal to grant universal suffrage.

January 13.—President Penna, of Brazil, reduces duties on a number of products of this country in view of our favors to Brazilian coffee, and to mark the visit of our fleet.

January 14.—Differences over finances result in the resignation of two members of the Japanese cabinet.

January 15.—An earthquake and tidal wave do great damage at Les Gonaïves, Haiti.

January 16.—A revolution is started in Haiti under the leadership of Jean Juneau.

The French defeat a native force in Morocco.

The Japanese budget provides for increased taxation.

Domestic.

WASHINGTON.

January 11.—In the House of Representatives attempts fail to amend the penal code so as to declare specifically the right of labor-unions to strike or boycott.

January 14.—The President, in a message to the Senate and in a letter to Secretary Taft, shows his determination to restore Cuba to the Cubans in his term, fixing February 1, 1909, or earlier, as the time.

January 15.—The Senate passes a joint resolution remitting to China about $13,000,000 of the Boxer indemnity.

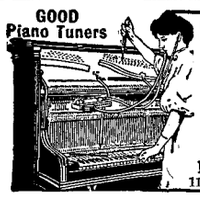
January 16.—Secretary Taft, before the Senate Committee on Interoceanic Canals, declares that the Panama Canal, with locks 110 feet wide will be completed in six years from next July, at a cost of $300,000,000.

GENERAL.

January 12.—Work of excavating the Pennsylvania Railroad tubes under New York is completed after three years of uninterrupted work.

January 13.—Iron and steel mills in the Pittsburg district are resuming.

Fire in a theater at Boyertown, Pa., ends the lives of more than 170 persons.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THE LEXICOGRAPHER'S EASY CHAIR.

In this column, to decide questions concerning the correct use of words, the Funk & Wagnalls Standard Dictionary is consulted as arbiter.

"G. G. G.," Cambridge, Minn.—"Is the use of the word *away* correct in the sentence 'Objects several feet *away* were barely visible'?"

Away when used of position attained by removal in place means "at a distance; in another place; at a (stated) distance;" as, a mile *away*. Objects near or far removed may correctly be referred to as being *away*.

"C. H. S.," Orizaba, Mex.—"Is not the phrase 'I have gotten' correct when used in the sense of acquiring or having acquired?"

The use of *I have gotten* in the sense of "I have obtained" is correct but rare. *Gotten* is commonly used with an accompanying adverb. as in *ill-gotten*. To use it with *have*, to denote possession, is incorrect.

"J. G. O.," Dogden, N. D.—"What is your authority for *sanatorium* as preferred to *sanitarium*?"

The STANDARD DICTIONARY, page 1578, col. 3, where *sanatorium* is derived from the Late Latin *sanatorius*, health-giving, from Latin *sanatus*, pp. of *sano*, heal.

"W. F. S.," Ceredo, W. Va.—"Kindly tell me why we so often see such a sentence as 'All but *he* who went to the country,' in print. Is it not incorrect? If 'all but,' 'except,' or 'save he who did so and so' is correct, why is it so?"

The use of *but* as a preposition is approved by the following authorities. STANDARD DICTIONARY, J. E. Worcester, John Walker, R. C. Smith, Picket, Hiley, Angus, Lynde, Hull, Powers, Spear, Farnum, Fowle, Goldsbury, Perley, Cobb, Badgley, Cooper, Jones, Davis, Beall, Hendrick, Hazen, and Goodenow. Wells says on this point: "*But* is sometimes employed as a preposition, in the sense of *except;* as,

"'The boy stood on the burning deck
Whence all *but him* had fled.'"

The use of *but* as a preposition is condemned by Goold Brown, Sanborn, Murray, S. Oliver, and several other grammarians. The first-named authority says: "Now '*but*,' says Worcester, as well as Tooke and others, was 'originally *bot*, contracted from *be out*'; and, if this notion of its etymology is just, it must certainly be followed by the nominative case, rather than by the objective; for the imperative *be* or *be out* governs no case, admits no additional term but a nominative—an obvious and important fact, quite overlooked by those who call *but* a preposition."

"M. L. K.," Brooklyn, N. Y.—"In a recent report of the trial of General Stoessel for the surrender of Port Arthur I find the following: 'The garrison was time and again *annihilated*.' Is this use of the word 'annihilated' correct?"

To *annihilate* in its general sense is "to put out of existence; destroy absolutely," and this can not be done "time and again." But usage has given the meaning some elasticity, especially when referring to military matters. We speak of the annihilation of an army when we mean that its identity has been destroyed, as by the dispersing of its battalions.

"B. B.," Carlisle, Pa.—"(1) What is the difference in meaning between *fact* and *truth*? (2) What part of speech is *flat* in 'Don't lie flat'?"

(1) A *fact* is "anything that is done or comes to pass; an act or deed; an effect produced or result achieved; an event also anything regarded as actually existent, whether it be an object, event, condition, or relation, and whether material or mental; especially, something concrete as opposed to *truth* regarded as abstract." A fact is, also, "anything strictly true; a true or correct statement: sometimes applied to a general or abstract truth." A *truth* is "a fact as the object of correct belief; a reality." (2) In the sentence "Don't lie flat," the word *flat* is an adverb modifying "lie."

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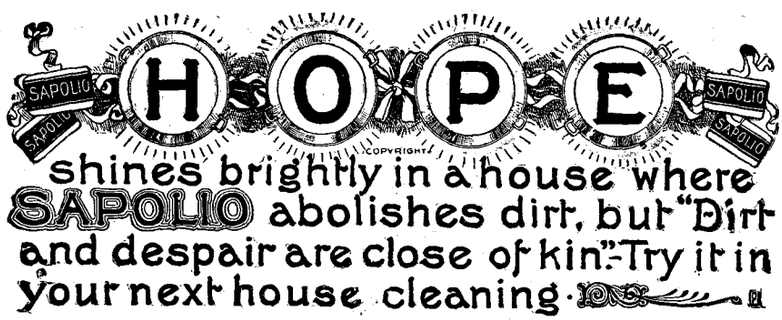

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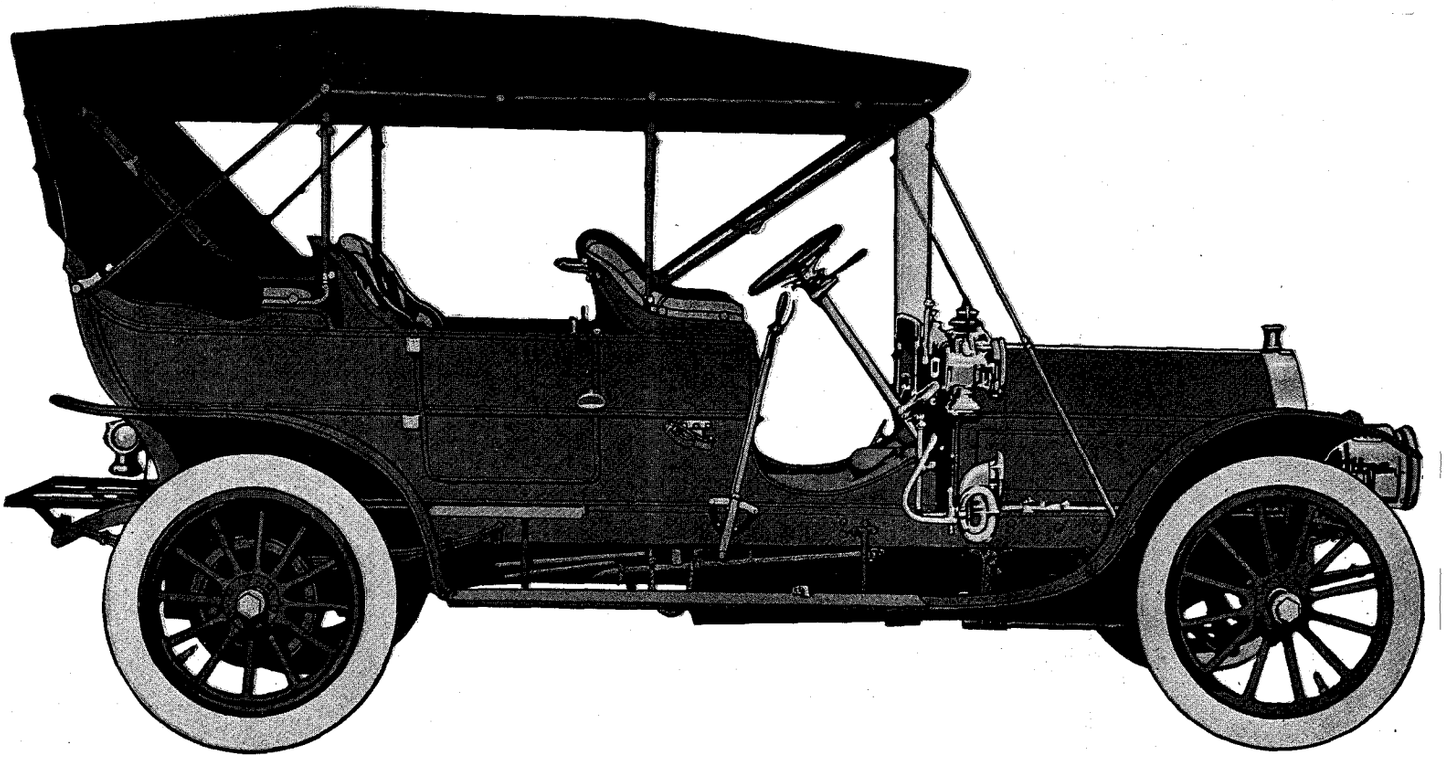

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